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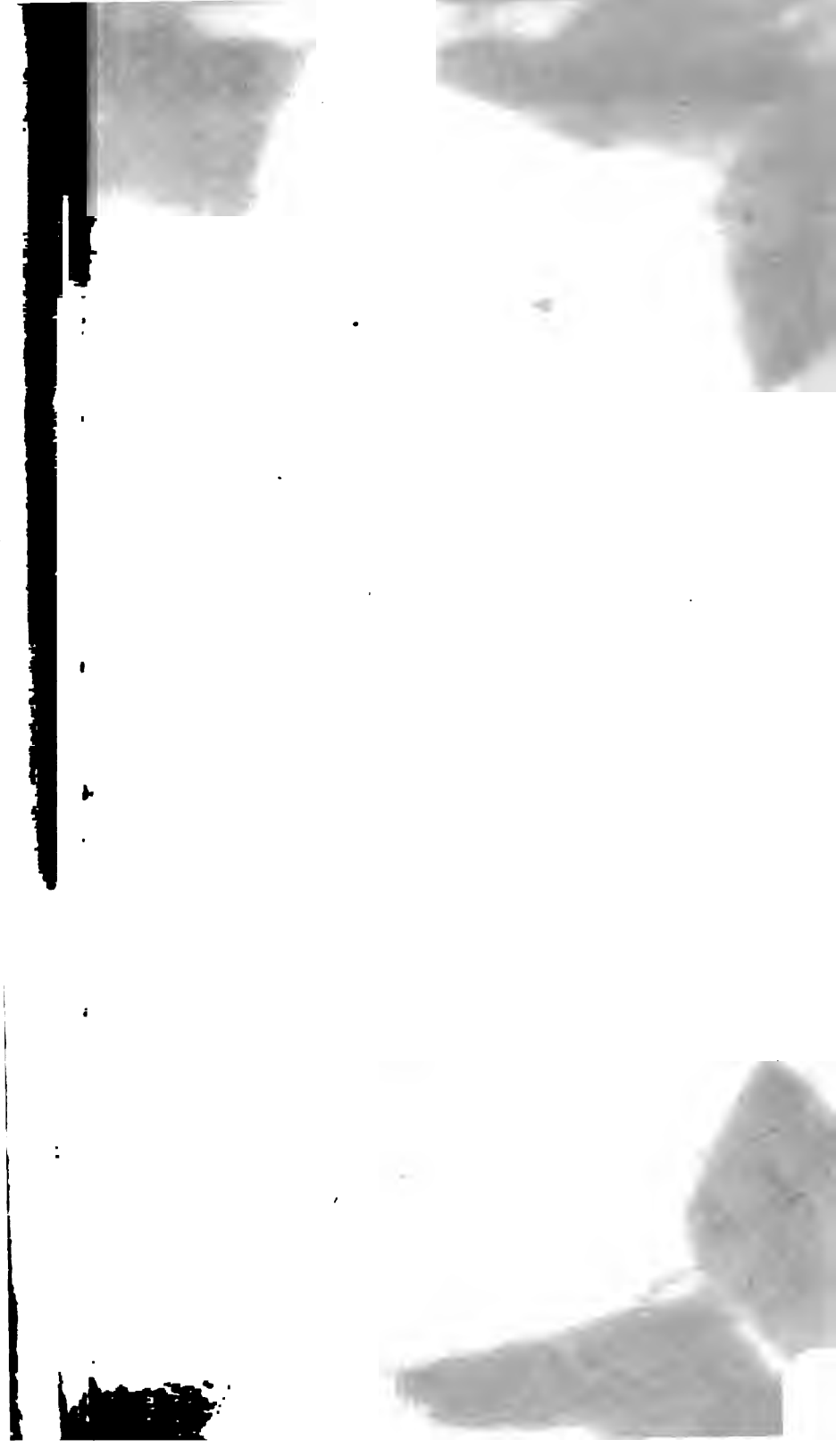

THE

# MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE,

AND

# COMMERCIAL REVIEW.

CONDUCTED BY FREEMAN HUNT,

EDITOR OF THE LIBRARY OF COMMERCE, ETC.; CORRESPONDING MEMBER OF THE AMERICAN STATISTICAL SOCIETY; MEMBER OF THE NEW YORK HISTORICAL SOCIETY; HONORARY MEMBER OF THE MERCANTILE LIBRARY ASSOCIATIONS OF NEW YORK, BOSTON, BALTIMORE, AND LOUISVILLE, ETC., ETC.

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# ADVERTISEMENT.

THE number for June, 1846, completes the 14th volume, and the 7th year of the existence of the "*Merchants' Magazine.*" The reputation it has acquired at home and abroad, and the success that has marked its progress, encourage the editor and proprietor to renewed efforts to render it worthy of the continued support of the intelligent classes in the community, whose interests it has aimed to promote, by a careful compilation of the statistics of trade and commerce, and of the various industrial movements of our own and other countries. We have endeavored to infuse into our journal, a national spirit and character, by securing the aid of able correspondents in all parts of our wide-spread Republic; and by exhibiting the resources of every state and territory of the Union. On mooted points in political economy, banking, and the principles of trade, we have freely admitted articles advocating antagonistic doctrines and opinions; and, while it is our great aim to exhibit facts, and embody the practical operations of commerce, the Magazine will ever be open to the free and fair discussion of every subject legitimately falling within its general scope.

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New York, June 1st, 1846.

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THE

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HUNT'S

# MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE.

JANUARY, 1846.

## Art. I—VALUE AND PROSPECTS OF LIFE IN THE UNITED STATES.

PART II.

AN ANALYSIS OF THE VARIOUS UNITED STATES' CENSUSES, REGARDING THE AGES OF THE INHABITANTS WITH A VIEW TO ILLUSTRATE THE VALUE AND PROSPECTS OF LIFE IN THE DIFFERENT SECTIONS OF THE UNITED STATES.

In continuing the examination of the information to be derived from the United States' census of ages, concerning the duration and prospects of life in the various sections of the country, we proceed to present a table embracing every state, constructed on principles that have been alluded to. The male white population in infancy, or under 5, are put on an equality for each state, and those in the subsequent periods, bear by per centage on this number in infancy, which, for convenience, is assumed to be 100. Another table puts the number between 20 and 30 on an equality, and shows the per centage on this number, in four of the subsequent periods. Another table still, introduces equality in the number of inhabitants between 70 and 80; being a table from which extracts have already been presented. Some peculiarities will be noted *almost corresponding to the latitudes of the states*, in the successive diminutions of the proportions of persons in the successive periods of life. The census used is that of 1840. It will be seen that, among states, New Hampshire and Connecticut stand in the foremost rank, for filling up the middle and later stages of life, (the two very latest stages excepted,) and will rank by the side of Great Britain, preceding her in infancy, and falling behind in manhood. An *order of succession* in the arrangement of countries, states, and cities, in the three following tables, will be perceived in noticing the *last* column, *except one*, of the first table, and the *last* columns of the other two tables. It will be perceived, as a peculiar circumstance, that the countries of Great Britain and the New England states, are at the *head* of the first two tables, and at the *foot* of the last one. The *last* column of the first table gives the number of the males necessary to be taken in the several places to embrace just 100, under the age of 5 years. For cities, it will be perceived that those numbers are generally the largest, which shows that they are much indebted for their population to adult emigrants from the country. Had the first table been construeted in this manner for the census of 1830, instead of 1840, the differences would be immaterial; they would be such as might be inferred from the already proved truth, that the population of every part of the country has been becoming an older one. Such table having been prepared for 1830, shows that in 18 of 24 states, the ratio of all over 60 to those under 5, has increased; but no exception to the Western States.

TABLE I.—(Explained in the context.)

| | Under 5. | 5 to 10. | 10 to 15. | 15 to 20. | 20 to 30. | 30 to 40. | 40 to 50. | 50 to 60. | 60 to 70. | 70 to 80. | 80 to 90. | 90 to 100. | Ov'r 100. | All ov. 60. | Wh'le No. r'present'd by the 100. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| New Hampshire, | 100 | 94.0 | 91.9 | 85.1 | 190. | 91.2 | 70.2 | 47.2 | 29.8 | 18.7 | 5.9 | ,56 | ,011 | 53.09 | 755 |
| Connecticut, | 100 | 91.5 | 90.8 | 86.0 | 137. | 100. | 70.2 | 47.9 | 30.1 | 17.7 | 5.4 | ,48 | ,042 | 53.83 | 780 |
| Wales, 1821, | 100 | 92.9 | 80.0 | 66.6 | 94.6 | 73.9 | 58.0 | 43.0 | 31.6 | 16.2 | 4.0 | ,30 | ,006 | 53.33 | 665 |
| Stockholm, 1775, | 100 | 86.2 | 96.1 | 90.0 | 216. | 204. | 136. | 73.6 | 35.9 | 13.4 | 2.3 | ,26 | | 51.90 | 1053 |
| Sweden, 1775, | 100 | 76.8 | 74.3 | 65.0 | 110. | 94. | 73.1 | 51.1 | 32.8 | 14.4 | 3.5 | ,31 | | 51.10 | 694 |
| Scotland, 1821, | 100 | 90.4 | 83.1 | 68.6 | 108. | 72. | 59.6 | 42.3 | 30.7 | 14.4 | 3.9 | ,45 | ,026 | 49.36 | 667 |
| England, 1821, | 100 | 87.3 | 76.0 | 64.2 | 95.5 | 75. | 61.1 | 43.2 | 29.0 | 14.4 | 3.6 | ,26 | ,008 | 47.38 | 650 |
| Vermont, | 100 | 87.7 | 78.7 | 78.2 | 105. | 80.9 | 58.9 | 44.8 | 26.1 | 14.4 | 4.1 | ,36 | ,060 | 44.03 | 673 |
| Massachusetts, | 100 | 85.2 | 80.2 | 78.2 | 161. | 110. | 63.5 | 40.7 | 24.2 | 13.6 | 4.0 | ,41 | ,036 | 42.34 | 761 |
| Rhode Island, | 100 | 83.4 | 83.7 | 79.6 | 130. | 95. | 62.5 | 39.3 | 22.1 | 12.1 | 4.0 | ,28 | .... | 38.50 | 721 |
| London, Eng., 1821, | 100 | 78.4 | 66.8 | 61.8 | 193. | 110. | 86. | 52.2 | 25.2 | 8.4 | 1.8 | ,12 | ,014 | 36.00 | 716 |
| Maine, | 100 | 86.1 | 78.2 | 68.3 | 104. | 72. | 49.2 | 31.0 | 18.3 | 10.2 | 2.6 | ,20 | ,012 | 31.98 | 694 |
| New Jersey, | 100 | 82.6 | 76.1 | 67.1 | 108. | 75. | 48.5 | 29.6 | 17.0 | 8.5 | 2.3 | ,23 | ,024 | 28.09 | 615 |
| New York, (State,) | 100 | 84.1 | 74.5 | 69.2 | 122. | 84. | 51.9 | 29.3 | 16.4 | 7.8 | 2.1 | ,20 | ,030 | 26.58 | 643 |
| Virginia, | 100 | 77.2 | 66.2 | 55.2 | 92. | 59. | 39.6 | 24.1 | 13.9 | 6.4 | 1.8 | ,28 | ,037 | 22.45 | 535 |
| Maryland, | 100 | 76.5 | 68.4 | 69.7 | 112. | 77. | 47.2 | 27.1 | 14.6 | 5.8 | 1.5 | ,24 | ,060 | 22.22 | 569 |
| United States, | 100 | 80.6 | 69.2 | 59.5 | 104. | 68. | 43.8 | 24.7 | 12.7 | 6.3 | 1.7 | ,20 | ,037 | 21.95 | 570 |
| North Carolina, | 100 | 79.7 | 67.8 | 53.4 | 83. | 58. | 36.2 | 22.5 | 12.7 | 6.1 | 1.6 | ,27 | ,068 | 21.71 | 617 |
| Pennsylvania, | 100 | 78.5 | 67.8 | 60.1 | 102. | 66. | 43.0 | 25.4 | 13.5 | 6.2 | 1.64 | ,16 | ,042 | 21.51 | 565 |
| Delaware, | 100 | 80.1 | 72.5 | 62.7 | 116. | 72. | 43.0 | 25.7 | 13.8 | 6.4 | 1.62 | ,10 | ,061 | 20.63 | 623 |
| South Carolina, | 100 | 78.1 | 67.1 | 56.2 | 91. | 55.5 | 36.2 | 22.6 | 12.3 | 5.7 | 1.65 | ,20 | ,060 | 19.96 | 536 |
| Ohio, | 100 | 80.2 | 66.8 | 56.3 | 95.2 | 59.4 | 38.0 | 21.0 | 12.6 | 4.7 | 1.12 | ,14 | ,036 | 18.59 | 536 |
| Kentucky, | 100 | 78.0 | 66.1 | 55.0 | 89.7 | 54.3 | 33.6 | 19.9 | 11.2 | 5.2 | 1.45 | ,22 | ,068 | 18.13 | 515 |
| New Orleans, | 100 | 66.3 | 48.4 | 69.3 | 242. | 206. | 99.5 | 37.3 | 12.4 | 2.8 | 1.08 | ,26 | ,206 | 17.84 | 388 |
| Charleston, S. C., | 100 | 72.1 | 73.4 | 77.8 | 185. | 133. | 69.2 | 31.5 | 11.0 | 5.4 | ,67 | ,22 | ,111 | 17.47 | 760 |
| Baltimore, | 100 | 70.9 | 61.8 | 66.3 | 134. | 90. | 46.6 | 24.4 | 12.0 | 3.7 | 1.10 | ,16 | ,047 | 17.10 | 611 |
| Tennessee, | 100 | 80.1 | 66.3 | 50.9 | 76. | 46. | 28.9 | 19.0 | 10.6 | 4.5 | 1.27 | ,16 | ,033 | 16.62 | 494 |
| Boston, | 100 | 74.4 | 59.0 | 70.7 | 274. | 164. | 53.8 | 25.8 | 10.6 | 4.2 | 1.14 | ,17 | ,070 | 16.23 | 536 |
| Philadelphia, | 100 | 71.9 | 56.9 | 63.5 | 134. | 89. | 48.4 | 23.0 | 10.5 | 3.9 | ,91 | ,13 | ,123 | 15.65 | 603 |
| Georgia, | 100 | 77.5 | 61.9 | 47.7 | 79.2 | 56.6 | 31.7 | 17.4 | 9.6 | 3.75 | 1.04 | ,20 | ,043 | 14.71 | 481 |
| Albany, | 100 | 76.3 | 59.1 | 55.1 | 112. | 106. | 55.5 | 23.0 | 10.0 | 3.09 | 1.20 | ,114 | .... | 14.50 | 601 |
| New York, (City,) | 100 | 65.5 | 53.4 | 55.8 | 157. | 109. | 47.4 | 20.5 | 9.5 | 3.16 | ,72 | ,117 | ,013 | 13.51 | 623 |
| Florida, | 100 | 79.4 | 62.0 | 52.2 | 179. | 114. | 48.8 | 21.6 | 8.9 | 3.09 | ,82 | ,122 | ,041 | 12.93 | 671 |
| Indiana, | 100 | 81.7 | 65.5 | 51.9 | 85. | 52. | 30.7 | 19.6 | 8.8 | 3.80 | ,78 | ,096 | ,020 | 12.90 | 505 |
| Louisiana, | 100 | 77.5 | 56.8 | 52.2 | 151. | 118. | 57.5 | 24.0 | 8.7 | 2.97 | ,73 | ,188 | ,120 | 12.76 | 649 |
| Alabama, | 100 | 77.0 | 62.3 | 44.3 | 86. | 53. | 32.2 | 16.4 | 7.8 | 2.73 | ,74 | ,198 | ,054 | 11.53 | 488 |
| Illinois, | 100 | 77.1 | 64.2 | 51.3 | 109. | 65. | 32.7 | 18.1 | 7.6 | 2.31 | ,53 | ,072 | ,027 | 10.51 | 557 |
| Mississippi, | 100 | 73.5 | 58.7 | 44.3 | 103. | 61. | 30.6 | 16.8 | 7.3 | 2.39 | ,66 | ,071 | ,020 | 10.47 | 497 |
| Missouri, | 100 | 75.3 | 61.3 | 48.5 | 96. | 59. | 32.9 | 16.2 | 7.0 | 2.26 | ,59 | ,081 | ,014 | 10.08 | 561 |
| Martha's Vineyard, Dukes Co., Mass., | 100 | 100. | 94.5 | 86.9 | 189. | 118. | 85. | 57. | 30.1 | 23.3 | 6.27 | 2.98 | .... | 70.96 | 575 |
| Litchfield Co., Conn., | 100 | 99.2 | 98.0 | 98.0 | 197. | 162. | 79. | 56. | 34.0 | 20.6 | 6.26 | ,50 | .... | 61.30 | 817 |

TABLE II.

| | 20 to 30. | 30 to 40. | 40 to 50. | 50 to 60. | 60 to 70. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Wales, | 100 | 77.0 | 60.9 | 45.1 | 33.1 |
| Scotland, | 100 | 73.5 | 60.0 | 43.6 | 30.7 |
| England, | 100 | 78.5 | 64.0 | 45.2 | 30.4 |
| Sweden, | 100 | 85.4 | 66.3 | 46.4 | 29.8 |
| New Hampshire, | 100 | 75.7 | 58.3 | 39.2 | 24.8 |
| Vermont, | 100 | 76.5 | 55.7 | 42.4 | 23.8 |
| Connecticut, | 100 | 73.1 | 51.1 | 34.9 | 21.9 |
| London, | 100 | 90.0 | 70.0 | 42.8 | 20.5 |
| Maine, | 100 | 70.7 | 47.2 | 29.8 | 17.6 |
| North Carolina, | 100 | 62.6 | 43.4 | 27.0 | 16.4 |
| Rhode Island, | 100 | 68.5 | 44.9 | 28.3 | 15.9 |
| New Jersey, | 100 | 69.4 | 45.0 | 27.4 | 15.8 |
| Virginia, | 100 | 64.4 | 43.3 | 26.3 | 15.2 |
| Massachusetts,* | 100 | 68.3 | 39.4 | 25.3 | 15.0 |
| Tennessee, | 100 | 61.3 | 38.0 | 25.0 | 14.6 |
| South Carolina, | 100 | 61.2 | 40.6 | 24.9 | 13.6 |
| New York, (state,) | 100 | 68.4 | 42.2 | 23.8 | 13.3 |
| Pennsylvania, | 100 | 65.1 | 42.1 | 24.9 | 13.2 |
| United States, | 100 | 65.3 | 40.3 | 23.7 | 13.2 |
| Maryland, | 100 | 70.0 | 42.8 | 24.6 | 13.2 |
| Ohio, | 100 | 61.9 | 39.6 | 21.9 | 13.1 |
| Kentucky, | 100 | 59.4 | 37.4 | 22.2 | 12.5 |
| Georgia, | 100 | 64.0 | 40.0 | 22.0 | 12.2 |
| Delaware, | 100 | 62.1 | 37.1 | 22.2 | 11.9 |
| Indiana, | 100 | 64.3 | 37.2 | 23.8 | 10.7 |
| Alabama, | 100 | 61.3 | 37.4 | 19.1 | 9.15 |
| Albany, | 100 | 94.4 | 49.5 | 20.5 | 8.98 |
| Baltimore, | 100 | 67.1 | 34.5 | 18.1 | 8.97 |
| Philadelphia, | 100 | 66.3 | 36.0 | 17.1 | 7.85 |
| Missouri, | 100 | 60.3 | 33.7 | 16.6 | 7.21 |
| Mississippi, | 100 | 59.9 | 29.8 | 16.4 | 7.13 |
| Illinois, | 100 | 59.8 | 30.1 | 16.7 | 6.97 |
| New York, (city,) | 100 | 69.5 | 30.2 | 13.0 | 6.04 |
| Charleston, S. C., | 100 | 71.9 | 37.4 | 17.0 | 5.96 |
| Louisiana, | 100 | 78.5 | 38.2 | 15.9 | 5.81 |
| New Orleans, | 100 | 85.0 | 41.2 | 15.4 | 5.12 |
| Florida, | 100 | 63.7 | 27.3 | 12.0 | 5.01 |
| Cincinnati, | 100 | 51.9 | 20.4 | 9.2 | 4.13 |
| Boston, | 100 | 60.3 | 19.7 | 9.4 | 3.87 |
| St. Louis, | 100 | 50.2 | 13.2 | 4.2 | 1.51 |
| Great Britain, both sexes. | 100 | 74.4 | 58.9 | 42.0 | 29.1 |
| Ireland, both sexes. | 100 | 65.9 | 43.8 | 35.0 | 15.5 |

TABLE III.

| | 70 to 80. | 80 to 90. | 90 to 100. | over 100. | over 90. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| New Orleans, | 100 | 28.5 | 9.50 | 5.43 | 14.9 |
| Louisiana, | 100 | 24.8 | 6.34 | 4.38 | 10.7 |
| Do. West District of, | 100 | 17.9 | 3.41 | 5.11 | 8.52 |
| Do. East District, omitting N. O., | 100 | 27.5 | 4.78 | 2.75 | 7.53 |
| Alabama, | 100 | 27.4 | 4.69 | 2.00 | 6.69 |
| Do. South District, | 100 | 27.7 | 5.40 | 2.80 | 8.20 |
| Do. North District, | 100 | 27.0 | 3.88 | 1.08 | 4.96 |
| Philadelphia, | 100 | 23.2 | 3.46 | 3.13 | 6.59 |
| Georgia, | 100 | 27.7 | 5.30 | 1.16 | 6.46 |
| Charleston, S. C., | 100 | 12.2 | 4.06 | 2.03 | 6.09 |
| Boston, | 100 | 26.8 | 4.11 | 1.64 | 5.75 |
| Baltimore, | 100 | 29.4 | 4.19 | 1.26 | 5.45 |
| North Carolina, | 100 | 26.1 | 4.41 | 1.02 | 5.43 |
| Cincinnati, | 100 | 17.4 | 4.34 | 1.08 | 5.42 |

* Massachusetts would stand higher in this table, were there not an *unnaturally large* proportion between 20 and 30 in the state.

TABLE III.—Continued.

| | 70 to 80. | 80 to 90. | 90 to 100. | Over 100. | Over 90. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Kentucky,.... | 100 | 27.9 | 4.21 | 1.00 | 5.21 |
| Maryland,.... | 100 | 26.7 | 4.18 | 1.02 | 5.20 |
| South Carolina,.... | 100 | 28.9 | 3.50 | 1.55 | 5.05 |
| Virginia,.... | 100 | 27.9 | 4.40 | ,55 | 4.98 |
| Tennessee,.... | 100 | 28.1 | 3.58 | ,73 | 4.31 |
| Illinois,.... | 100 | 23.0 | 3.13 | 1.16 | 4.29 |
| New York city,.... | 100 | 22.9 | 3.70 | ,41 | 4.11 |
| Missouri,.... | 100 | 22.5 | 3.45 | ,62 | 4.07 |
| Mississippi,.... | 100 | 27.9 | 3.00 | ,86 | 3.86 |
| United States,.... | 100 | 27 4 | 3.13 | ,60 | 3.73 |
| Ohio,.... | 100 | 23.9 | 2.94 | ,77 | 3.71 |
| Albany,.... | 100 | 42.1 | 3.67 | ..... | 3.67 |
| Indiana,.... | 100 | 24.4 | 3.01 | ,62 | 3.63 |
| Delaware,.... | 100 | 22.7 | 1.86 | 1.49 | 3.35 |
| Massachusetts,.... | 100 | 29.5 | 3.02 | ,26 | 3.28 |
| Pennsylvania,.... | 100 | 26.6 | 2.60 | ,68 | 3.28 |
| Scotland,.... | 100 | 26.9 | 3.10 | ,18 | 3.28 |
| Wales,.... | 100 | 30.3 | 3.07 | ,04 | 3.11 |
| Vermont,.... | 100 | 28.3 | 2.68 | ,41 | 3.09 |
| New Hampshire,.... | 100 | 31.5 | 2.99 | ,06 | 3.05 |
| Maine,.... | 100 | 25.2 | 2.91 | ,12 | 3.03 |
| New Jersey,.... | 109 | 26.8 | 2.73 | ,28 | 3.01 |
| Connecticut,.... | 100 | 30.7 | 2.73 | ,24 | 2.97 |
| New York, (state,).... | 100 | 27.1 | 2.59 | ,37 | 2.96 |
| Rhode Island,.... | 100 | 33.2 | 2.31 | ..... | 2.31 |
| Sweden,.... | 100 | 24.4 | ..... | ..... | 2 12 |
| Stockholm,.... | 100 | 17.3 | ..... | ..... | 1.93 |
| England,.... | 100 | 25.7 | 1.80 | ,05 | 1.85 |

Having prepared tables on the principle of these, for every county in New England, New York, and Pennsylvania, which are too cumbersome here to present, the writer alludes to the circumstance merely to state that they furnish a means of interpreting those which are given. It was desirable to know how far the parts of a state, or its counties, resemble the state as a whole—and whether those parts to which nature has given a peculiarity of surface, as elevation, depression, a dry or a moist soil, etc., present any correspondencies in any relative proportion of persons, at the different ages, to each other. Though the boundaries of states and counties are considered arbitrary, yet in numerous instances, they regard nature's lines and boundaries; such as highlands, ranges of mountains, rivers, etc. Thus, the southern half of New England is divided by highlands from New York,—five counties in Vermont occupy exactly all the country between the Connecticut River and the range of Green Mountains, being a more elevated and a dryer half of that state. These same five counties, arranged as in the first of these three tables, according to the ratio of those over 60 to those under 5, will, *every one of them, rank above the remaining nine counties of that state.* And, moreover, some of the five are *recently settled* counties, and some of the nine are the *longest settled* ones in the state. Again, six counties in New York are adjacent to six counties in New England, (embracing the boundary line from Lake Champlain to Long Island Sound,) and each of the latter six counties would rank above each of the former six, by the same test,—which is evidently *more*, than to say that each New-England county ranks above *its* adjacent New York one.

The counties of Litchfield and Tolland in Connecticut, Worcester and Franklin in Massachusetts, Cheshire and Merrimack in New Hamp-

shire, stand foremost among the counties in these states severally. They are elevated counties, the sources of the neighboring rivers. Litchfield is a high table land, and parts of it are elevated 1000 feet above the sea, and is known by data, independent of the *census*, to be a healthy country. So is Worcester county in Massachusetts. New Hampshire is known by independent data, to be one of the healthiest of states; an eminent physician, writing from that state, says: "there is probably no state in the union, in which there is so little disease as in this,—I have never known an extensive epidemic." This circumstance, weighed with the fact that New Hampshire stands at the head of the two preceding tables, (and the third is no test,) will serve to offset any unfounded inferences that we have attempted to draw from the United States' census. The value of life is high in that state. It is very high in infancy and through manhood.

Tested in this manner, the counties of Suffolk, Otsego, Saratoga, Fulton and Madison, in New York, stand foremost, the contiguous counties next, and in general the eastern middle of the state—the parts about the sources of the Mohawk river, rank above other portions of the state. The counties named would rank with Massachusetts in table first, the southern district will rank with Rhode Island, and the northern and western parts of the state rank with Pennsylvania.

In Pennsylvania, the counties of Adams, Bucks, and Washington, rank highest; The eastern district, as well as the east district of Virginia, (both lying east of the Alleghany mountains,) above the western districts severally.

In regard to the state of Virginia and others south of her, the reader has perceived that seven states, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Alabama, and Mississippi, rank in the first of these tables, in the order here named, or *in the order of juxtaposition on the coast*, and in the following order in the second table,—North Carolina, Virginia, South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, Florida,—no essential deviation from the first order. Unquestionably the average age which the white population possess in those states, would rank in a similar order. Is this order of arrangement accidental, determined by no one essential determinable cause? If we take seven similar ivory balls, numbered from one to seven, we could not arrange them *consecutively* in a row, by touching them only, more than once in two thousand five hundred and twenty trials, nor more than once in five thousand and forty trials, placing number one or seven, at the end of the row desired. It is confessed that this order is somewhat that of the lengths of time since settlement and growth; but this does not appear a sufficient, nor so satisfactory an explanation, as to refer it all to causes affecting health and duration of life depending on climate. The region in question embraces a great range of country, under many gradations of climate, and perhaps it is not too much to expect that the average influences of soil and climate in this range of country on human life, should be summed up into as many as seven grades, consecutive with the coast, that would not be confounded with each other, by any legitimate test, of a numerical nature.

With regard to the concession that has been previously mentioned, that recent and rapid growth of a state in population, corresponds with a greater relative proportion of persons in early life, in many instances; it may be in point to state that Mississippi, which has recently grown the most rapidly of any state in the Union with one or two exceptions, did

not undergo an increase of this proportion from 1830 to 1840; for what reason it does not appear; but the fact weighs in favor of the above opinion. It cannot but be regarded as an important fact, that there are but one-fifth as many men above 60 in that state, as New England will average, in proportion to the white males under five.

Allusion has already been made to the fact that all the southern states agree, in prolonging life remarkably after the age of 85 is reached, and among them Louisiana takes the lead, as seen in the last table; the circumstance that this state, taken by its east and west districts and chief city, holds still the pre-eminence in each part, confirms the probability that there is something peculiar in the climate of that region, favorable to very advanced life. The writer has not meteorological data on this point that would enable him to specify what this peculiarity is.

The western states, although of more recent settlement and rapid growth, have, with one or two exceptions, a higher proportion of persons advanced in adult life, than the southern states. It is but fair here to state that these states rank in this respect, among each other, nearly in the order of lengths of time since settlement, or rather of distance westward, viz: Ohio, Kentucky, Tennessee, Indiana, Illinois, Missouri, in 1840; and thus in 1830,—Kentucky, Ohio, Tennessee, Indiana, Missouri, Illinois. Also, there was a greater increase in these relative proportions in these states during the ten years, than in any other states, except the rapidly growing states of the north; among which may be instanced New York, Maine, and Vermont. It is exceedingly difficult, without the aid of collateral statistics, to draw any correct conclusions with regard to what is to be the relative proportion of persons in the different ages of life, in these states at the time when they shall have ceased to receive immigrants, when they shall have given birth to, and carried through life, their own literal population; at the time indeed when they shall rank with the old states in all those respects in which they should, in order that the comparisons, here attempted, might be made in a legitimate manner. The collateral statistics would be those of births, marriages, and deaths, (with the ages of marriages and deaths,) that take place annually in the states. In such statistics, widely extended, there would latently exist such information, as that of the number of children in a family, the number of generations at once on the stage of life. People are able to get this knowledge of themselves only in their governmental capacity. Massachusetts, has by authority, commenced this liberal statistical information, by causing every birth, marriage, and death in the commonwealth to be registered by the town clerks, and returned to the secretary of state, every year. The liberal governments of Europe had done as much a century ago.

At present, the population of a *considerable portion of our country* is not of such a nature, that, if every death that had ever occurred in it had been recorded, and its age, we should be able to deduce therefrom the true expectation of life, in years, because so great a proportion of the population is *young*, owing to *other* causes, than those properly inherent in the climate, influencing the duration of life. Deaths take place, other things being equal, in proportion to the number living. Deaths of advanced persons would be comparatively few. If such an attempt should be made, results would be produced no more correct, than results founded on and deduced from the relative proportions of the living; and this is evidently

impossible, until we have definite and distinct statistics of the number of immigrants in such region, within a specified time. Every immigrant compensates *numerically* for a death.

A rude estimate may be made of mortality in the United States, from the census alone; or rather a number for the annual proportion of deaths may be obtained, which will be *less* than the true number by the number of persons proportional to the population, arriving in the country in the same time; and this will have reference only to the number of persons dying *above* the age of 5 years, *below* which age very great mortality usually takes place. The following is the method.

Since the country increases decennially about 35 per cent in population, it becomes necessary to allow room for this increase, by supposing a sufficient number of persons in one decennial period of life, (which period with all the persons continuing to live, becomes the following period at the end of ten years,) to remain alive to make 35 per cent advance on that next period. If we take 100,000 of the white population of 1840, by ten decennial periods, and one supra-centennial one, they will be apportioned among the periods as in the column below, under the year 1840; each portion becoming 35 per cent greater in ten years, the 135,000 persons will be apportioned as under the year 1850.

| | 1840. | 1850. | Excesses. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Under 10,..... | 31,607 | 42,669 | 544 |
| 10 to 20,..... | 23,010 | 31,063 | 1,490 defic'y |
| 20 to 30,..... | 18,153 | 24,504 | 2,508 |
| 30 to 40,..... | 11,589 | 15,645 | 1,709 |
| 40 to 50,..... | 7,319 | 9,880 | 1,425 |
| 50 to 60,..... | 4,366 | 5,894 | 1,057 |
| 60 to 70,..... | 2,451 | 3,309 | 818 |
| 70 to 80,..... | 1,136 | 1,533 | 702 |
| 80 to 90,..... | 322 | 434 | 267 |
| 90 to 100,..... | 41 | 55 | 34 |
| 100, and over,..... | 5 | 7 | 5 |
| | 100,000 | 135,000 | 10,559 |
| | | | Def., 1,490 |
| | | | 9,069 |

The column headed *excesses*, represents the number of persons in the periods of the date 1840, who are too many to equal the number of those *one period* of 10 *years later in life*, under the date of 1850. The sum of these excesses, omitting one deficiency, gives the number of persons not to be accounted for at the end of 10 years, unless they have died, 9,069; this being a decennial result, should be divided by ten for what would be about an annual average result. We have, then, a fraction over nine deaths per 1000 of the population, annually; this being probably not one half of the true number. It may perhaps be regarded as a peculiar circumstance, that if every white person living in 1840, between the age of 10 and 20 years, were to live till 1850, they would not be equal to the probable number between the age of 20 and 30 at that date; population increasing 35 per cent, as it did from 1830 to 1840. So much for immigration compared with the number of deaths at one period of life—that period in which there is commonly every where the smallest percentage of deaths.

The ratio of the number of persons under the age of 5 years at one time living, to the number born during the 5 years, was for Sweden in

the year 1775, as 100 to 146; it may not be materially different in the United States, since Sweden, though salubrious to middle life, is destructive to infancy, one half dying before the age of ten years, or more exactly forty-eight and two-thirds per cent—forty-three per cent dying before the age of 5 years. Now 100,000 white persons in the United States have 17,433 under the age of 5 years; 46 per cent advance on this number gives 25,452 as the number of births in 5 years, or 5090 per year, or one to twenty of the population—a proportion too large for truth. Probably one birth in twenty-five or thirty of the population is about the truth. In New England the proportion is about one in thirty-six or thirty-eight of the population, a very large proportion of whom being beyond middle life, much larger than in the United States. Countries which contribute most to the prolongation of life, have this proportion the smallest.

It is proper to observe before the close of this examination, that should we draw inferences from these tables concerning longevity in different sections of the United States, *without* those qualifications or apologies that have been advanced for some sections, the differences among the sections would be no greater than are known to exist between parts of countries in Europe, bearing no comparison in extent of territory with the United States. The circumstances of difference depending not so much on mere latitude, as on those conditions of soil which generate febrile diseases—the chief source of the destruction of a majority of all lives in some regions. M. Bossi gives the following table, illustrative of the comparative influence on lives, of the peculiarities of the surface of the country in different sections of France:

| | 1 *death* ann'lly among | 1 *marriage* among | 1 *birth* among |
|---|---|---|---|
| In Hilly Districts,..... | 38.3 persons. | 179 persons. | 34.8 persons. |
| Along the banks of rivers,. | 26.6 " | 145 " | 28.8 " |
| In cultivated grounds,..... | 24.6 " | 133 " | 27.5 " |
| In marshy places,..... | 20.8 " | 107 " | 26.1 " |

There are nearly as great differences presented by the counties of England, according as they are hilly or fenny. In the whole country there is one death annually among 58.7 inhabitants. The counties reported in parliamentary returns as essentially fenny, are Kent, (1 death in 41,) Essex, (1 in 44,) and the East Riding of Yorkshire, (1 in 47,) and in these counties the mortality is much above the average. The mortality of the *town* of Boston "situated in the fens," is 1 in 27; the *town* of Stamford, "in the dry upland," one in 50. Not only were the above counties reported as "fenny," but as "subject to agues."

The only reason why the *male sex* only is embraced in most of the allusions to the census, and in the large tables here given, is, that the sexes stood distinct in the compendium of the census made use of, and the labor was much less than to have presented combined results. The male sex is more subject to the influences of climate, and these results are perhaps more important than had they regarded both sexes; especially since separate results would exist, if the census of the other sex should undergo any similar analysis. The following comparison of the two sexes of the white population, for the country as a whole, presenting results appreciable by the eye, which may be expected to undergo but very little variation, (being deduced from so many millions of persons,) is calculated to give an approximative view of the relative lengths of life of the sexes in this country.

| | Males. | Females. |
|---|---|---|
| Under 5, assume..... | 100. | 100. |
| Then from 5 to 10, there must be..... | 80.6 | 82.2 |
| 10 to 15,..... | 69.2 | 69 7 |
| 15 to 20,..... | 59.5 | 65.8 |
| 20 to 30,..... | 104.1 | 104.3 |
| 30 to 40,..... | 68.1 | 64.9 |
| 40 to 50,..... | 42.2 | 41.8 |
| 50 to 60,..... | 24.7 | 25.4 |
| 60 to 70,..... | 13.7 | 14.4 |
| 70 to 80,..... | 6.3 | 6.7 |
| 80 to 90,..... | 1.7 | 2.0 |
| 90 to 100,..... | ,20 | ,27 |
| Over 100,..... | ,037 | ,026 |
| | 570. | 577. |

If we may infer any thing concerning the relative mortality of the sexes it is—greater male mortality under 15 years, and greater female mortality during early adult life; greater male mortality in later adult life, and finally greater female mortality between the years 90 and 100, leaving more males than females to die above the age of 100. There are, generally, more males born than females, and more females living at a time than males.

With reference to the comparative duration of life of the white and black population of the country at large, the following table has been prepared.

| | P.ct. ov. 45 in 1820. | Per cent over 55 in 1830. | 1840. | No. pr. 100,000 ov. 100 in 1830. | 1840. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| White males,..... | 11.85 | 6.039 | 6.018 | 5½ | 6½ |
| White females,..... | 11.99 | 6.017 | 6.259 | 4½ | 4½ |
| Free black males,..... | 15.62 | 7.675 | 7.396 | 175 | 152 |
| Free black females,..... | 15.61 | 8.318 | 8.064 | 232 | 181 |
| Male slaves,..... | 9.56 | 4.176 | 4.178 | 74 | 60 |
| Female slaves,..... | 9.41 | 4.219 | 4.056 | 68 | 47 |

It is here assumed that one-half of the *white* population between 40 and 50, are over 45, and that one half between 50 and 60 are over 55, which is evidently too great an allowance; consequently, the per cent of the whites here given as over 45 and 55 are larger than truth, though they are still less than the corresponding per centages of the free blacks. In New England, however, the whites have as great a proportion over these ages, as the free blacks of the United States have.

The *great contrast* through the above table between *free blacks* and *slaves*, will strike attention, which we leave to suggest its own comments. But the relative proportion of whites and blacks over 100, is the greatest peculiarity. There is, indeed, a greater proportion of blacks over 100, than of whites over 90 or even 85, but not over 80. There is about the same per cent of free blacks over 100 as of whites over 84; and were we to regard the *south only*, for whites and blacks, instead of 84, the age of whites must be put considerably lower, to embrace that equal per centage, and somewhat higher than 84, regarding New England for whites, and the country for blacks.

The preceding investigations are offered as a contribution towards a liberal intelligence concerning the population of this widely extended and widely *extending* country.

The following table is here presented (constructed on precisely the principle of one that has been explained,) relating to counties in New

England, the male population of 1840 being that regarded. The order of rank will be perceived. The counties of Vermont, however, have been mislaid since they were first prepared, a year ago, also those of Rhode Island.

| | Und. 5. | 5 to 10. | 10 to 15. | 15 to 20. | 20 to 30. | 30 to 40. | 40 to 50. | 50 to 60. | 60 to 70. | 70 to 80. | 80 to 90. | 90 to 100. | Ov'r 99. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Dukes, Mass.,..... | 100 | 104 | 94 | 87 | 160 | 118 | 85 | 57 | 39 | 23 | 6.4 | 2,28 | 71 |
| Tolland, Ct.,..... | 100 | 95 | 98 | 91 | 122 | 96 | 75 | 59 | 36 | 19 | 7.7 | ,47 | 64 |
| Cheshire, N. H.,... | 100 | 91 | 93 | 91 | 121 | 93 | 72 | 55 | 33 | 20 | 8.4 | ,89 | 62 |
| Windham, Ct.,.... | 100 | 92 | 92 | 87 | 128 | 96 | 69 | 54 | 34 | 20 | 6.3 | ,68 | 61 |
| Merrimac, N. H.,. | 100 | 94 | 93 | 80 | 118 | 92 | 74 | 51 | 32 | 21 | 5.7 | ,56 | 61 |
| Litchfield, Ct.,..... | 100 | 92 | 98 | 92 | 137 | 102 | 79 | 56 | 34 | 21 | 6.2 | ,50 | 61 |
| Rockingh'm, N.H., | 100 | 94 | 96 | 87 | 135 | 98 | 74 | 50 | 32 | 20 | 5.1 | ,57 | 60 |
| Sullivan, N. H.,.. | 100 | 93 | 92 | 100 | 129 | 94 | 77 | 49 | 29 | 21 | 7.4 | ,47 | 58 |
| Franklin, Mass.,.. | 100 | 91 | 90 | 91 | 118 | 87 | 64 | 47 | 31 | 20 | 6.5 | ,79 | 58 |
| Plymouth, Mass.,. | 100 | 96 | 93 | 83 | 130 | 104 | 74 | 53 | 31 | 19 | 5.6 | ,58 | 57 |
| Windsor, Vt.,..... | | | | | | | | | | | | | 57 |
| Orange, Vt.,..... | | | | | | | | | | | | | 55 |
| Washington, R. I., | | | | | | | | | | | | | 55 |
| Hillsboro', N. H.,. | 100 | 91 | 89 | 79 | 120 | 97 | 70 | 51 | 29 | 18 | 6.1 | ,56 | 54 |
| Strafford, N. H.,... | 100 | 98 | 96 | 85 | 112 | 86 | 69 | 45 | 28 | 18 | 5.8 | ,58 | 53 |
| Fairfield, Ct.,..... | 100 | 92 | 87 | 77 | 117 | 94 | 67 | 44 | 29 | 18 | 4.5 | ,55 | 52 |
| Hampshire, Mass., | 100 | 88 | 88 | 88 | 133 | 97 | 69 | 48 | 28 | 19 | 4.9 | ,40 | 52 |
| Windham, Vt.,.... | | | | | | | | | | | | | 52 |
| New Haven, Ct.,. | 100 | 94 | 85 | 88 | 153 | 110 | 70 | 46 | 30 | 17 | 5.2 | ,42 | 52 |
| Grafton, N. H.,.... | 100 | 93 | 86 | 87 | 126 | 87 | 64 | 41 | 28 | 17 | 5.3 | ,41 | 51 |
| Worcester, Mass.,. | 100 | 88 | 89 | 83 | 156 | 101 | 68 | 47 | 28 | 17 | 5.8 | ,61 | 51 |
| Middlesex, Ct.,.... | 100 | 87 | 91 | 88 | 124 | 87 | 68 | 44 | 28 | 17 | 4.8 | ,25 | 50 |
| New London, Ct.,. | 100 | 93 | 91 | 93 | 144 | 99 | 67 | 44 | 25 | 17 | 6.4 | ,58 | 50 |
| Hartford, Ct.,..... | 100 | 88 | 90 | 90 | 153 | 107 | 70 | 46 | 29 | 15 | 4.2 | ,39 | 49 |
| Nantucket, Mass.,. | 100 | 76 | 84 | 99 | 216 | 128 | 73 | 49 | 27 | 17 | 3.2 | ,20 | 48 |
| Caledonia, Vt.,.... | | | | | | | | | | | | | 48 |
| Newport, R. I.,.... | | | | | | | | | | | | | 47 |
| York, Me.,..... | 100 | 91 | 87 | 76 | 102 | 74 | 58 | 41 | 25 | 17 | 4.2 | ,41 | 46 |
| Berkshire, Mass.,. | 100 | 85 | 79 | 79 | 140 | 105 | 67 | 40 | 25 | 16 | 4.4 | ,54 | 46 |
| Essex, Vt.,..... | | | | | | | | | | | | | 46 |
| Hampden, Mass.,. | 100 | 91 | 87 | 83 | 166 | 119 | 73 | 46 | 26 | 15 | 4.6 | ,40 | 46 |
| Kent, R. I.,..... | | | | | | | | | | | | | 46 |
| Washington, Vt.,. | | | | | | | | | | | | | 45 |
| Essex, Mass.,..... | 100 | 86 | 80 | 74 | 145 | 101 | 62 | 40 | 36 | 13 | 4.0 | ,38 | 44 |
| Rutland, Vt.,..... | | | | | | | | | | | | | 44 |
| Bristol, Mass.,..... | 100 | 83 | 83 | 74 | 146 | 100 | 63 | 40 | 24 | 15 | 4.2 | ,46 | 44 |
| Barnstable, Mass.,. | 100 | 90 | 85 | 76 | 125 | 90 | 55 | 37 | 26 | 13 | 3.3 | ,48 | 42 |
| Addison, Vt.,..... | | | | | | | | | | | | | 42 |
| Bennington, Vt.,... | | | | | | | | | | | | | 41 |
| Norfolk, Mass.,.... | 100 | 82 | 75 | 73 | 151 | 103 | 61 | 40 | 24 | 13 | 3.5 | ,33 | 41 |
| Cumberland, Me.,.. | 100 | 92 | 82 | 76 | 120 | 84 | 56 | 36 | 23 | 13 | 3.4 | ,35 | 40 |
| Coos, N. H.,..... | 100 | 88 | 79 | 64 | 82 | 72 | 56 | 30 | 22 | 11 | 3.0 | ,36 | 37 |
| Kennebec, Me.,.... | 100 | 92 | 84 | 77 | 110 | 76 | 48 | 34 | 21 | 12 | 2.9 | ,52 | 36 |
| Oxford, Me.,..... | 100 | 91 | 86 | 74 | 95 | 74 | 55 | 37 | 20 | 12 | 3.1 | ,30 | 36 |
| Chittenden, Vt.,.... | | | | | | | | | | | | | 35 |
| Lincoln, Me.,..... | 100 | 88 | 79 | 69 | 115 | 73 | 48 | 32 | 20 | 11 | 3.5 | ,28 | 34 |
| Lamoile, Vt.,..... | | | | | | | | | | | | | 34 |
| Orleans, Vt.,..... | | | | | | | | | | | | | 32 |
| Franklin, Me.,.... | 100 | 89 | 78 | 72 | 92 | 72 | 48 | 30 | 18 | 11 | 1.8 | ,23 | 31 |
| Somerset, Me.,.... | 100 | 87 | 75 | 64 | 91 | 65 | 44 | 29 | 17 | 8 | 1.8 | ,23 | 27 |
| Hancock, Me.,..... | 100 | 80 | 69 | 58 | 89 | 63 | 41 | 22 | 16 | 8 | 1.6 | ,22 | 26 |
| Waldo, Me.,..... | 100 | 87 | 74 | 66 | 100 | 66 | 44 | 27 | 16 | 6 | 2.1 | ,25 | 24 |
| Grand Isle, Vt.,.... | | | | | | | | | | | | | 24 |
| Washington, Me.,. | 100 | 84 | 75 | 67 | 93 | 67 | 46 | 25 | 12 | 6 | 1.4 | ,28 | 19 |
| Piscataquis, Me.,.. | 100 | 91 | 80 | 69 | 75 | 69 | 45 | 25 | 13 | 5 | 1.3 | ,00 | 19 |
| Penobscot, Me.,... | 100 | 82 | 68 | 85 | 114 | 85 | 42 | 24 | 12 | 5 | 1.1 | ,20 | 18 |
| Suffolk, Ma., Bost., | 100 | 74 | 51 | 164 | 274 | 164 | 54 | 26 | 11 | 4 | 1.1 | ,17 | 16 |
| Aroostook, Me.,.. | 100 | 81 | 59 | 76 | 128 | 76 | 41 | 21 | 10 | 3 | ,6 | ,00 | 14 |

## Art. II.—PROGRESS OF RAILROADS IN MASSACHUSETTS.

NATURE has not been liberal to Massachusetts in soil, climate, or navigable streams. Her territory, confined within narrow limits, is generally rugged and unequal—her winters long and severe. With the exception of the Merrimac, no great rivers have their outlets in her ports; and the Merrimac, by its bars and rapids, gives little encouragement to navigation; and yet with all these drawbacks, with no articles for export but ice and granite, her progress has been rapid and astonishing. Her harsh climate has invigorated her hardy sons—her ungrateful fields have given them lessons of frugality and enterprize—her forests have been moulded into ships to pursue the cod, the seal, and the whale, have sought wealth in foreign climes, and become the great carriers of the Union. With the funds thus gathered on the deep, or in richer lands accumulating in frugal hands, they have made the very roughness of nature subservient to art. The streams have been arrested in their precipitous fall to the sea, and compelled to toil, to spin, and to weave. The boulders and ledges which defaced the fields have been lifted from their beds to build the foundations of factories, or to line the wells and cellars of a growing population, imparting to her fields the fertility originally denied by nature.

But commerce and art demand easy communication, and so essential has Massachusetts deemed it to its progress, that she has bent herself to supply the absence of navigable waters. Commencing with a noble system of town and country roads, she early embarked in turnpikes, diverging in all directions from her metropolis; coaches and wagons were soon in motion, connecting her with the interior, and Boston became distinguished for lines of stages, unrivalled in speed and comfort, throughout the Union. But a new agent began to exert a mighty influence. The genius of Fulton gave to the water an ascendency over the land, and the fast coach and the slow wagon were vanquished by the steamboat. Armed with the power of steam, New York made the East and the North rivers the arteries of commerce, and extending these great routes by navigable canals, she grasped not only the west, with Vermont and Canada on the north, but pierced the very heart of Massachusetts, pushing her improvements up the valleys of the Connecticut, and the Blackstone, to Springfield and Northampton, and even to Worcester, but forty miles west of Boston. The steamboat, in alliance with the canals, running down the natural watercourses, seemed destined to make Massachusetts a mere tributary; a vortex was opened whose attraction was irresistible; how could the manufacturer or the artisan of the interior afford to pay five cents per mile for conveyance by the coach, or fifteen cents per mile a ton for the transit of his goods to Boston, when steamboats and canals had reduced the transit to New York from fifty to eighty per cent, and made her the eastern outlet of the prolific West?

Massachusetts had tried canals in advance of all the states; she was first in the race; she had surmounted the summit between the Merrimac and Boston, by the Middlesex Canal, before the war of 1812, and she remembers with pride that the commissioners of the Erie Canal, before commencing that great work, came to Massachusetts to learn the rudiments of canaling. But canals were not adapted to the rugged surface of the state from the intervening of ridges between Boston and the interior. The

manufacturer, too, could poorly await for the melting of a channel ice-bound half the year. Between the close of 1825 and the beginning of 1831, gloom and despondency seemed to settle down upon Massachusetts. Her sons left her to build up rival states and cities, and her fairest and richest daughters were courted away to grace more prosperous lands. The grass began to invade the wharves and pavements of her commercial centre, and the paint to desert the fronts of her villages; her pride was in the glories of the past, and in these she will ever be rich—not in the achievements of the present or the promise of the future. She seemed to stand at the ancestral tomb, sorrowing that she could not partake of the progress of the age, or to be dropping a tear beside the old hive as it grew yearly darker, or crumbled away, while swarm after swarm left it for sunnier skies. But her spirit, though chilled, was not subdued; a new era was at hand; art was preparing for another bound; the east was about to requite the west for the discoveries of Fulton, and to make steam more powerful on land than he had made it on the water. A star, the presage of future progress, broke forth in the east when Robert Stephenson applied the modern locomotive to the rail, and gave to England and the world the finished railroad. The noble viaduct which spans the Tyne, at Newcastle, on the main route from London to Edinburg, is soon to bear a costly statue dedicated to the great genius of modern times—to the master-spirit who is revolutionizing the whole intercourse of the world; and Massachusetts owes him a statue also for his discovery, which, more than aught else in modern times, makes her what she is, and is to be.

So chilled was her spirit by the adverse current from 1825 to 1831, that she could scarcely see, in the twinkling star rising beyond the ocean, the beacon that was to light her onward. Wedded to the systems of the past, she could not realise that men and merchandize were to be whirled through her granite hills and deep ravines, winter and summer, regardless of frost and snow; and those who first ventured to name the fire-horse and the rail in her streets, journals and legislative halls, encountered the smile of derision, and the name of visionaries and enthusiasts. There are those still on the stage who remember the obscure chamber and studied privacy in which the first measures were concerted to enlighten the community. The glowing zeal of Allen, who saw in advance "a car from each town join the train as the caravan came along," the enlarged intellect of Segwick, and keen forecast of Degrand, could not shield them from the shafts of ridicule. The transition from darkness to light was too sudden, the mental eye could not, for months, accustom itself to the new field of vision.

But the incredulity of Massachusetts had its prototype in England, as we learn from the lips of Robert Stephenson himself. When he went to London, as the engineer of the Liverpool and Manchester Railway, to obtain a charter, he was cautioned as to his testimony. "Be sure," said the counsel, "when you testify before the committee, not to say your locomotive will make more than ten miles per hour. I know you honestly believe you can attain fifteen, but the public are not prepared for it, and will not believe it, and we may be laughed out of Parliament." Stephenson went before the committee; he proved his case, and claimed a speed for his machine of ten miles per hour, but when the opposing counsel asked him, in his cross examination, with a significant smile, "do you not believe you can run this fire-horse of yours even twenty, or five and twenty miles

an hour," the conscientious man of science admitted the fact, and the dangerous admission of but half of what he accomplished startled the committee and nearly lost him the case. The success of the Liverpool and Manchester lines, however, was soon appreciated, and Massachusetts at once entered the field. Her first effort, and one of the first lines finished in America, was the Quincy Railroad; then followed the Worcester; the Lowell and the Providence opened in 1834–5; then the Easton, Boston and Maine, Western, Nashua, Norwich and Worcester, Taunton, New Bedford, Fitchburg, Old Colony, and a net-work of railroads now in progress, overspreading the entire surface of the state, so widely disseminated that ere many months have elapsed, few points will be found in the Old Bay State more than one hour's ride from the cars.

The railroad system of Massachusetts has made such progress that it connects her great seaport not only with Albany and Lake Erie, but also with the principal towns of all the New England states, save Vermont, and is rapidly advancing across Vermont, via. Windsor, Montpelier and Burlington, to Lake Champlain, northern New York and Canada. Under the mighty impetus thus given, the march of Massachusetts has been onward; manufactures, agriculture, commerce, and the arts have flourished; property has advanced in value; the cost of transit has fallen; population has been retained and drawn in from other states, and Boston, the commercial capital, is pressing onward with renewed vigor. In 1830 the population of Boston and its immediate suburbs, Charlestown, Cambridge and Roxbury, was, by the census, 81,500; in 1845, by the census, it is 155,000, showing a gain of 73,500, equal to 90 per cent in fifteen years. In 1830 the valuation of Boston was $59,586,000; in 1845 it is $135,948,700, showing a gain of $76,263,700, or equal to 128 per cent.

The progress of the state itself, although not as rapid as that of Boston, has been striking also. In nearly all directions new structures meet the eye; value has been given to forests, quarries, mill-sites, and produce in the interior, and it is safe to predict that the census of 1850 will give to the state a population of 1,000,000, and a valuation of $500,000,000, and to Boston and its suburbs a population of 200,000, and a valuation of $200,000,000. It would not be just, however, to ascribe all this to the railroad system; a part is doubtless due to commerce, manufactures, and the fisheries; but the improved system of communication has given to them a vast impulse, and they have exerted a powerful influence on the system itself. Tusserene, in his report on the Belgium railroads, informs us that the tonnage of arrivals and departures increased fifty per cent in two years at Antwerp, and thirty per cent in one year at Ostend, on the completion of single lines of railways. If single lines have done so much, how much may be ascribed to seven distinct lines leading from Boston?

### CHARACTER OF THE MASSACHUSETTS RAILROADS.

The art of constructing railroads has been and still is progressive. At the outset it was thought essential to secure the most favorable gradients, and great expenses were incurred to reduce them below thirty feet to the mile on the Worcester and Lowell railroads. Deep trenches were dug and filled with broken stone for foundations, and stone sills, or sleepers, were introduced at great cost on one of the lines. The early engines were of moderate power, but were soon made more efficient, and the improvement of motive power obviated most of the objections to higher gradients, and on some of the modern lines gradients of forty, sixty, and even

eighty-three feet to the mile have been introduced, and in practice. Thus far roads with gradients of forty feet have been run as cheaply as those more level. Surface roads conforming to the undulations of the country are thus constructed, and the absence of deep cuts and embankments exposed to the action of the elements, lightens their burthen of repairs. Most of our lines have single tracks, and for these the road-bed is usually formed twenty-four feet wide in the cuts, and fifteen on the embankments. Five rods is the usual width of the surface taken for a road, and the fences are now constructed by the companies. In place of broken stone, a bed of gravel or sand, well elevated above the drains, is now generally adopted as a foundation; all clay is removed, and water, the great enemy of railroads, courted away by a careful system of drainage. The stone sills, although at first thought most durable, have been found liable to break, and more costly and less elastic than wood. To avoid a jar, the Blacksmith places his anvil on wood, and such is the jar on stone foundations, that the wear of cars and engines, both in Europe and America, has been diminished by substituting wood for stone. The rails are now generally laid on sleepers or cross-ties, averaging seven feet by eight to twelve inches, and hewn on two sides, beneath which are hemlock sub-sills. The second growth chestnut has been found most durable for ties, and the most approved distance is two feet six inches from sleeper to sleeper. Across these are placed the rails; these are rolled iron, averaging 18 feet in length, and weighing usually 56 to 60 lbs. per yard. The pattern in most general use has a flat base, with a flat or rounded head; the base rests on the sleeper, and is attached to it by spikes with heads lapping on the rail, and the ends of the rail are connected and confined by clasp chairs of iron. At the outset, rails of various patterns were adopted. On the Worcester, a light edge rail of 39 lbs. to the yard was used, but was found inadequate, and which has been partially replaced with a rail of 60 lbs. to the yard. On the Lowell, the fish-belly rail of 35 lbs. to the yard has been tried, condemned, and replaced by one of 60, but as yet no good rails of the modern pattern and size have given indications of failure. A few of indifferent iron, whose upper surface had been rolled too thin, may have occasionally split at the edge, but in other particulars even ten years' use seems to have made little or no impression, and the problem is still unsolved, how long will they endure?

The engines now in use, and the proximity of the sleepers, favor the endurance. In England, ten to twelve thousand pounds weight is often thrown upon a driving wheel, but in Massachusetts eight thousand pounds is the maximum, and on many lines the average is from five to seven thousand pounds only. With cautious use, a long duration, and freedom from repairs may be anticipated for the best rails. The plate rail has received little or no countenance in Massachusetts. Its insecurity and instability—the inequality of surface which attends its use—the loss of speed and diminution of power which it entails, and extra cost of maintenance, which must exceed the interest on the extra cost of a heavy rail, have deterred directors and engineers from adopting it. As the first president of the Western Railroad once happily expressed it, "he would not have for a railroad a hoop tacked to a lath." The only specimen in Massachusetts is the upper section of the Housatonic line, which runs in from Connecticut, and a new association is prepairing to replace it with a heavy rail. The success and popularity of the system may be ascribed in a great degree to the choice of the rail.

COST OF MANAGEMENT.

When the Chevalier de Gerstner visited the United States in 1838, the average cost through the Union of running a train, was reported by him to be one dollar per mile run. In 1840, Professor Vegnalles, an eminent English engineer, in his report to the British Association, makes, as the result of a careful analysis of many English lines, an average cost of three shillings, or 72 cents per mile. In Massachusetts the average is not far from 65 cents per mile, while three of the more recent lines have actually run for the last two years, with a large traffic, at less than 40 cents per train a mile, and in all the lines the average size of the trains has greatly increased in addition. The first engines on the Liverpool and Manchester line, from which our earliest patterns were copied, are stated, in the report of Teisserenc, to have run but seven thousand miles each year, at a cost of £400 for repairs, or 29 cents per mile run. The Boston engines of the present day, with six to eight wheels, four fold the tractive power, and far lighter on the rail, perform with ease twenty-eight thousand miles a year, at a cost for repairs of three cents per mile run. In the wear of cars the improved axles, chilled wheels, the trucks and elongated frames, soft metal boxes for the journals, and springs beneath and between the cars, have effected an almost equal improvement. The training and discipline of operatives, establishment of inflexible rules, arrangement of depots, increase of reserved stock of engines and cars, judicious purchase and preparation of fuel, improved rails and adjustment of track, and increase of traffic, have all tended to reduce the cost of management, and it may be safely stated that the cost of conducting the business has been reduced more than fifty per cent.

In the printed report of the directors of the Boston and Worcester Railroad Company,* dated April, 1840, it is stated that the cost of transporting a ton between Worcester and Boston, including loading and unloading, was, in 1835, \$2 $\frac{33}{100}$, and the number of tons carried 9,359; in 1839, it was \$1 $\frac{94}{100}$, and the number of tons carried 29,108. In 1844, the Worcester Company, in a case with the Western Company as to tolls, claimed that the cost, in 1843, was \$1 $\frac{11}{100}$ per ton—amount carried, 88,324 tons; but the Western Company would concede but 57 cents per ton, objecting to large items of deterioration and repairs, as belonging to prior years. The medium between them is 88 cents per ton, doubtless not far from the actual cost, which continues to decline with the increase of traffic. The cost on the Fitchburgh is materially less. The modern lines, with superior road-beds and rails, improved engines and cars, and less outlay on cuts and embankments, have, of course, the advantage in the race; but the managers of the old lines are generally aware that their policy is like that of the factories, "to work out the old and work in the new," and to keep pace with the progress of events; and their first choice of routes, and the business concentrated on their lines by an earlier start, aid them in their efforts.

Already railroads have decided advantages over canals in the monopoly of mails, passengers, and the business of six months of winter. Canals in a long series of years have reached, or nearly attained, their highest

* In 1845, the accounts of the Fitchburgh Railroad Company indicate that the cost of transporting freight, exclusive of loading and unloading, will be less than one cent per ton a mile.

point of perfection. Railroads, on the contrary, are yet in their infancy, and yet susceptible of improvement; have an indefinite capacity for trains, and with each increase of trains the cost of transit diminishes.* A great further reduction in the cost of transportation by railroads in Massachusetts may be relied upon as certain.

INCREASE OF TRAFFIC.

The ratio of increase on the lines of Massachusetts, has kept pace with the extension of the system. At a reduction of charges, and a diminution of cost, the business has doubled at least once in eight years, and this increase promises to be progressive. Occasionally, a disastrous year, an error in policy, or a rival line, causes a temporary reaction; but the vacuum is soon filled, and the traffic again overflows. The question most frequently discussed by directors is, "how many new cars and engines shall we order?" and "how shall we enlarge our depots?" At first, two or three acres were thought ample for a first class depot; a few years after this, the author was thought extravagant in advocating twenty for the Western and the Fitchburgh lines. The question now is, "will twenty be sufficient?" The London and York propose fifty for a metropolitan depot; and when we consider the result produced by the combined effects of reduced charges, extension lines, and the growth of the country, a liberal provision for depot grounds will be found most judicious. Our commercial cities provide extensive water fronts, miles of stores, docks, piers and levees for the reception of navigation; and when railroads are to receive and deliver, as they now do annually at Boston, half a million of tons, and the ratio of increase is ascertained, space must be provided.

THE POLICY OF MASSACHUSETTS IN HER CHARTERS.

The great question of the Warren and Charles River Bridges, inspired Massachusetts with a salutary caution in granting her charters. The Charles River Bridge claimed under a general grant of a toll for a long term of years, an exclusive right, which, if enforced, would have given the proprietors in 1844 a net income of $65,000, or about one hundred and fifty per cent per annum. This case was decided about the date of our earliest railroads. To secure the public, and obviate all questions for the future, Massachusetts has reserved to herself the right of reducing tolls, if the income exceeds ten per cent, and a right of purchase after twenty years, on payment of the principal and ten per cent income, deducting the tolls received. England has been more liberal in her charters. In a country where money produces less than in Massachusetts, she allows the income to reach ten per cent, reserves the right to buy, but provides that in such event, she will, if the road earns ten per cent, pay therefor a capital that shall produce ten per cent at twenty-five years purchase, or at the rate of four per cent per annum. She virtually stipulates to pay a premium of one hundred and fifty per cent to each successful enterprise,

* With respect to the repairs of the road and track, the annual average cost in Massachusetts, has been less than $400 per mile of railroad, which is considerably less than the average annual repairs of the Erie canal; as the principal part of the repairs is independent of the amount of traffic, consisting in renewal of culverts, bridges, sleepers, embankments, and clearing the cuts, but a trifling amount of repairs will fall on an increase of traffic.

In 1839, the entire expense of repairs, inclusive of supervision, on the New York canals, were $421,678 90, an average per mile of $658 87, losing not far from 26-100 per ton a mile, and the cost of freight not far from 90-100 of a cent per mile.

while Massachusetts is to pay par and ten per cent. A successful stock, therefore, rises in England from one hundred to two hundred and fifty, while in Massachusetts it has in no case exceeded forty per cent premium. But the stimulus in England is too great; it has apparently crazed the whole community, both male and female. In Massachusetts it is sufficient to enlist the wary capitalist, and the enterprising and spirited merchant, who expects an accession of trade, as well as large dividends; it has created a race of engineers, managers, and contractors, who look for business to branches and extension lines, some of whom embark largely in the new lines as proprietors, as well as contractors, and both directly and indirectly impel the system onward.

One topic remains untouched, which has occasioned much discussion on both sides of the Atlantic, particularly during years of depression, but it would be impossible to compress it within this article. It is a topic of deep interest. Mountains may be tunnelled or surmounted, deep rivers may be bridged, and remote regions united by iron bands, but tariffs of charges may be interposed, more impassable than mountains, streams, and boundaries. An injudicious tariff, if too high, may prohibit trade, or throw it on rival cities; or if too low, may undermine the prosperity of the improvement itself.

The tendency of the rates has been rapidly downward, and with beneficial results, both in Massachusetts and in England; the reduction of the cost of transit at least one-half, demonstrates the power to carry with profit at half the original rates; reduced charges will open new fountains, but the charges still vary on the different lines, and the subject may be better discussed in a future number.* E. H. D.

## Art. III.—NEW YORK AND ERIE RAILROAD.

We have for a length of time intended to present to our readers some notice of this important work, which, considered in relation to the commerce of the city of New York, connecting it as by one link with the lakes, and thence with the mighty valleys and rivers of the west, is especially worthy of notice in a work like this; and which, by its length, its topographical relations, and the number and extent of its tributary branches, is, in this era of steam-power avenues, entitled to be considered the greatest work of the age.

The public we suppose are not yet prepared fully to appreciate the merits and importance of this undertaking; nor do we feel prepared by any means to do it the justice which it appears to us to deserve. The more we reflect on the bearings of it upon the interests of the city of New York, and the long line of country through which it passes, and compare its tendencies with those of similar works extending from the Atlantic cities, the more are we convinced that its importance is not, and cannot yet be, generally appreciated. Before its magnitude or its utility can be properly estimated or felt, it must be completed with a double track, occupied by ten thousand cars, and transporting thousands of passengers, and many thousands of

* The railroads of Massachusetts are eminently successful. The net income of 1845 will average nearly eight per cent, and the stocks average about ten per cent above par.

tons of commodities daily. When it shall yield to this metropolis results like these, sustained and increased by the growing population on its extended line, and beyond its western terminus, we shall be better able to speak of its value, of the foresight evinced by those who projected it, and of the perseverance and exertions by which it has been preserved from oft-impending ruin, and brought into a condition to be completed without much further delay.

It is no part of our present purpose to say anything of individuals who have been concerned, either in bringing forward the project originally, or in surmounting the difficulties which have been encountered at every stage of its progress; it being our object merely to make such observations respecting the work as an examination of the publications of the company, and of other documents, may suggest. These publications and documents are very numerous, and extend over a period of about fourteen years, since the enactment of its charter in April, 1832.

In pursuing this object, we naturally refer, in the first place, to the charter of the road, though had we time to spare for them, the events and measures which preceded and led to it, would well deserve some notice. The charter contains in its provisions much evidence that the subject to which it relates had been carefully studied and well considered. It was created at an early period in the history of railways, and when the subject was little familiar to the public. It however contains all the essential privileges and provisions for such an undertaking. The greatness of the work, and of its probable results, appear to have been clearly foreseen; and to reserve its vast benefits to the people of the state and of the city of New York, its route from the city to the lake was confined within this state. It authorized the construction of a single, double, or treble railway, but required the company first to complete a single track from the city of New York, (on the east side of the Hudson to the place of crossing,) or from some point on the western shore of the river in Rockland county, to Lake Erie, before laying the rails for a second track. It is obvious, that with the double advantage of navigation on the river for the transport of commodities to and from all the wharves of the city, and of a railway both for passengers and tonnage, on the east shore of the Hudson from the crossing at Piermont, extending eventually, perhaps, the whole length of the island, all the benefits of this vast thoroughfare may be secured to this metropolis, and in such manner as to insure the greatest possible economy, and convenience both with respect to travel and business. And while we commend the foresight which dictated this part of the charter, we cannot refrain from expressing the opinion that a diversion of the line from the route thus prescribed, or a too long delay of that portion of it which is to penetrate the city, would be found to be alike inconsistent with the interests of the stockholders and those of the public. Before a single track of the road is completed to Lake Erie, the importance of this plan and termination of the work will, we doubt not, be generally felt. It is to New York city the most important feature in the undertaking—the most valuable provision of the charter. And we venture to predict that the first commercial city of the Union, having control and possession of the largest and most important avenue to the distant interior, will not dispense with the advantages and benefits of its main starting point and termination. The grandeur, as well as the economy and advantage in every respect, of a continuous line of railway 450 miles in length, under one charter, pro-

tected throughout by the same laws, subject to the same police, the same system of management, the same rates of charges, the same regulations, and the same responsibility, will come, we doubt not, to be duly appreciated by the public. A main railway of the first class, 450 miles in extent, stretching from New York to the lakes, with tributary branches, in the aggregate perhaps of equal length, contemplated as an appendage and commercial arm of the city, is a grand, and even sublime object. No other state can possess a like avenue from the Atlantic to the inland seas of the west, within its own jurisdiction—no other single charter can embrace the extent and terminations of such a line—no other city can enjoy the benefits which it is the part of such a work to confer.

Of this work, as it advances westward, about three-fourths of the line is laid in the valleys of large rivers and their tributaries, viz : the Ramapo, the Delaware, the Susquehanna, the Chemung, the Canisteo, the Genessee, and the Allegany, along which the grades are very favorable. The ridges between the principal valleys require, in some instances, grades as high as sixty feet to the mile, or a little more than a rise of one foot in a hundred linear feet. But taken as a whole, whether considered in relation to travel or tonnage, the surface of the work in respect to grades is remarkably favorable. The acclivities occur at such distances as to admit of a very economical arrangement of motive power with reference to the tonnage to be conveyed.

In the construction of the road, it was made to differ in one important particular, as our readers probably are aware, from other railways in this part, at least, of the country, viz : in the width of the track ; the guage on this work being six feet, and on others four feet eight inches. So far as we have formed any opinion upon the subject, it is in favor of the wide track. Among the reasons for this opinion, we maintain the following only, though the discussion to which the seven feet guage of the Great Western Railway in England gave rise, might enable us to add others of still greater importance. A track six feet in width as compared with 4¾ feet, admits of proportionably wider and more commodious cars. Their greater length of axle, produces an equable instead of an oscillating motion from side to side, so common on the narrow track, whereby the centre of gravity is thrown alternately from side to side, by which the engines and rails are injured, and the danger of running off the track greatly increased. The importance of these considerations can hardly be over-estimated, and we apprehend that were the question now open on other important railways in the northern and middle states, they would adopt the wide guage.

We observe among the prudential and economical arrangements of this company, what we apprehend is original and peculiar, and on a road of such length, of great and permanent consequence, viz : that in the title deeds obtained for the roadway a covenant is contained, by which the granters are bound to erect, and forever maintain, the fences on both sides of the road. By this means a very large primary outlay, and permanent annual expenses are avoided, as well as the liability to damages for cattle killed on the road.

Our limits do not permit us to pursue this subject further at present, except to add a few remarks on the causes which have so long retarded the work, and the chief sources of the opposition it has met with. The deficiency of available means has from time to time arrested and delayed the work through a protracted period of general embarrassment, in the course

of which the public works of the state, and numerous corporate undertakings, have been suspended. The original subscription to the stock, in the city of New York, was rendered nearly nugatory by the great fire of December, 1835, and commercial revulsion of 1837. The payments on that subscription appear to have been between $300,000 and $400,000. The payments by subscribers on the line of the road amount to near $1,200,000. The loan of three millions from the state was subject to a large reduction, owing to the necessity of selling the stock when the price in the market was greatly depressed. Nothing in the history of the undertaking is more remarkable than that, with a floating debt of about $600,000, and its affairs in the hands of assignees for a considerable period, it should have been preserved from total failure. Fortunately the eastern division had been got into use, and being skilfully managed, and proving more productive than was generally anticipated, earned a considerable surplus beyond the current expenses of the company.

It is to most persons matter of surprise that the company which has so long striven to promote and complete this work, should have met with so much opposition as it appears to have encountered. The mystery is solved by referring both to the open and covert hostility of the political views of party men and demagogues, and to the interests and jealousies of the great northern route to Lake Erie, of particular towns on the Hudson, and of various rival corporations and projects. It is, we presume, owing to the evil influence which has emanated from these sources, that even the city of New York has been politically, or so far as its delegates to the legislature have represented it in this respect, been, with scarcely an exception, opposed to every legislative enactment in its favor. They were in like manner, owing to a similar influence, opposed to the construction of the Erie Canal. Many politicians then, as in more recent times, were opposed to internal improvements and state debts. In the present case, the local interests arrayed against the construction of this great rival avenue as a whole, and other interests affected by particular routes and locations, were sufficient to stimulate all the elements of hostility which could be roused by misrepresentation, detraction, and political demagogueism.

Happily the concern has, by the present law, been brought into a state to be resumed and carried forward; and, the citizens having subscribed the requisite funds, there seems to be a fair prospect that the unfinished portions of the work will be pushed on and completed at an early day. The task of finishing the work is easy, compared with that of doing what has been accomplished. The location of about 350 miles has been settled, and the roadway obtained chiefly by gratuitous cessions. A perusal of the several reports of the directors must, we apprehend, satisfy the reader that the work heretofore done is worth all it has cost, and that the undertaking, if carried out with fidelity and skill, will not disappoint the most sanguine expectations of the stockholders.*

* We have received, since this article was written and in type, from a gentleman perfectly familiar with all the circumstances and facts connected with the subject, a clear and comprehensive account of the early history, present condition, and future prospects of this great commercial enterprise, which we shall probably publish in the forthcoming number of this Magazine.

## Art. IV.—THE PIRACY OF CAPTAIN KIDD.

The commerce of the present day between maritime countries enjoys few advantages over that of earlier periods more marked than what it derives from the suppression of piracy. From the earliest dawn of modern trade until comparatively a very recent date, embracing the most authentic and interesting portion of naval history, sea-robbers have been the scourge of navigators. In the time of Pompey, the trade of the Romans was so destroyed by them that from apprehension of a famine, in consequence, that general was despatched with a large fleet and military force to extirpate them—being invested for the purpose with absolute power over the whole Mediterranean, and of the whole of the adjacent shores four hundred furlongs inland. The investiture of such authority would of itself show the enormity of the evil which it was sought to eradicate, if we were uninformed of its extent more particularly. The fact, however, is stated, that the pirates at that time possessed a thousand galleys, and were masters of four hundred cities. In the seventeenth century, when the discovery of the passage, around Africa, to the East Indies, and of America, had given a mighty impulse to navigation, there sprung up a race of freebooters who carried on their depredations on a scale hardly inferior to that of the Cilicians, who were subdued by Pompey. The principal seat of their operations was the Spanish settlements in the West Indies, and South America, where they were known as Buccaneers.* They not only plundered ships, but they ravaged cities and attacked fortified places on shore. Thus in 1671, after attacking the castle of Chagres, they crossed the isthmus and captured the city of Panama, after a desperate battle, in which six hundred Spaniards fell. They carried away one hundred and seventy-four mules laden with spoil, and six hundred prisoners bearing similar burthens. They were composed of natives of the different countries of Europe, but principally of England and France. Some whose names are familiar to us, were of the number, such as Dampier and Wafer, whose relations of their voyages are well known.

The English Colonies in North America were frequently resorted to by them for various purposes. A Captain Cook came to Virginia in 1683, to dispose of his prize goods.† After they were finally broken up in 1697, some went to the Carolinas to enjoy their ill-gotten wealth, and others settled in Rhode Island, and on the south side of Long Island, whose descendants enjoy among us a respectability more the result of their own merit than that of their ancestors.

Buccaneering was peculiarly the result of the pretensions of the crowns of Portugal and Spain, which, after the discovery of America, had, under the authority of a bull of pope Alexander VI., divided between themselves all the newly discovered lands in both the Indies to the exclusion of other powers. France, England and the Netherlands, the only remaining maritime nations, connived at a system of plunder, which, while it enriched them, weakened the power of their usurping neighbors. When inhabitants of these countries met in the West Indies, all difficulties between

* A name derived from *boucan*, a Carib term for *barbecu'd* meat, and applied to them because many of them had been engaged in the business of curing meat in that way, before betaking themselves to this life of rapine and conquest.—*Burney's History of the Buccaneers of America.*

† Wafer's Voyage, p. 44.

their princes at home were forgotten, and they banded together under the associated name of "Guards of the Coast," against the common victims, the Spaniards. Those nations even encouraged it by granting letters of marque and reprisal, without requiring process of condemnation of prizes, or otherwise regulating their exercise. In 1586, Sir Francis Drake sacked the city of Saint Domingo, and Lancaster, who commanded the first expedition of the English to the East Indies, had recommended himself to that command by an equally lawless attack on Pernambuco, in 1594.* When complaint was made of transactions of this kind, by the Spanish ambassador to Elizabeth, she replied that the Spaniards had produced that state of things by their injustice, and that she did not understand why either her subjects, or those of any other European prince, should be debarred from trading to the Indies. Piracies on her own coast she promptly punished, as in the case of Clinton and Purser, who were hanged at Wapping during her reign.†

While the buccaneers were depredating upon the commerce of the West Indies, others were similarly engaged on the coast of Africa, and in the Indian Ocean. Of the latter, Captain Thomas Tew, of New York, was one of the most daring and successful. After acquiring a fortune in this vocation he retired to Rhode Island, but was subsequently induced to return to his old mode of life, and to the old scenes of his piracies. He was finally shot in an engagement with a ship of the Great Mogul, having his belly so torn that he held his bowels in his hands. Another was Captain Avery, an Englishman, who, after robbing the India ships, falsified the old adage, of "honor among thieves," by carrying off the shares of booty of a large portion of his crew, first to Boston and then to England. He met with no better fortune in the end himself, for the merchants, his factors, to whom he entrusted his gold and gems, cheated him in turn, and prevented him from reclaiming his property through fear of exposure.

These pirates of the Indian seas, had their retreats in the island of Madagascar, where many of them retired with great wealth, amalgamated with the dusky daughters of that clime, imitated the habits of eastern princes in erecting walled palaces, and keeping well filled seraglios, and raised a hybrid progeny, who were accidentally discovered living there many years afterwards.‡

The suppression of the buccaneers and the pirates of the East at length became an object of importance to all the European nations. As the American Colonies of the English, French, and Dutch increased, and the commerce of those nations with the East became enlarged, the power of these buccaneers became correspondingly injurious to them from its indiscriminate exercise, for they intercepted the regular traders in their routes both to India and America. Reasons of state also influenced them to vigorous measures to put them down. The latter part of the seventeenth century was thus the period of a combined and systematic effort of the powers of Europe, which resulted in the complete destruction of the freebooters, so called. Piracy, however, continued to be followed very successfully, though not with the impunity which it had previously enjoyed.

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* Hakluyt, (Ed. 1809–12,) Vol. IV., page 209.

† The Dutch were equally severe against pirates on their own shores. In the beginning of the seventeenth century, sixty of them were hung at one time.—*Mercurie Francois.*

‡ Captain Johnson's History of the Pirates, Vol. I, page 58.

But as it is not our purpose to sketch its entire history, we will pursue it no further, having made these preliminary remarks for the purpose of introducing to the notice of the reader, Captain William Kidd, who was sent out to capture pirates, but who himself suffered the pirate's fate instead. Thus much however may be said, that the first part of the eighteenth century, constituting a period of twenty-five years after the extinction of the buccaneers, witnessed as daring robberies on the sea as any committed by them, and that many of them were projected in New York, and the New England Colonies, and the ships fitted out from thence for the purpose. Nor were these colonies alone implicated with them; Virginia and the Carolinas provided them a market for their goods, and even the Quakers of Pennsylvania tolerated occasional visits by those who spent their money freely among them.*

Circumstances, apart from the crimes of Kidd, have combined to invest his name with interest from the time of his execution up to the present moment, especially in this meridian. His connection with the original enterprise with the government, and others of the colony of New York, and with the king, and other high functionaries of Great Britain—his return to our shores with a larger amount of treasure than was ever known to have been brought here, but still exaggerated in the public mind much beyond the truth—and the attempt made by political parties, both in England and America, one to heighten the enormity of his offences in order to affect its opponents, and the other to shield itself by the bold sacrifice of the man who had betrayed it, at least, into difficulty, served to make his name a terror at the time, and a choice theme for the ballad-monger, to transmit to posterity.†

He thus became the prince of pirates, and the *nom de guerre* of the race. If any such had landed on our shores he was at once associated with Kidd, and each piratical craft that entered our rivers, with his vessel. The mischief which this has produced is not inconsiderable. Many have diligently sought Kidd's stolen treasures, in lands on which he never trod, and in waters where, after he turned pirate, his vessels never sailed. Smith, the historian of New York, says, that at his day some credulous people had ruined themselves in searching for pirate's money.‡ To dispel, if possible, this delusion, which still exists among us, and to collect together the facts connected with his piratical acts, and dispersed in a large number of manuscripts and printed notices, is the object of the following pages.

William Kidd—in the ballad erroneously called "Robert Kidd"—was a trader from New York, where he had married, and his wife and children had their permanent residence. During the war between England and France, in the early part of the reign of William III., he commanded a privateer in the West Indies, and distinguished himself for his skill and

* Williamson's North Carolina, Chap. VIII., and Watson's Annals of Philadelphia, Vol. II., 216.

† "Dr. G———g, knows who the person was, who was with Kidd more than once some few days before his execution, and dealt so freely with him as to advise him to charge two lords by name, with somewhat that was material, which he said was the only way could save his life: and the more to provoke the poor wretch, swore to him that those lords and their friends were restless in soliciting to have him hanged." This extract from a publication of the time, vindicating Lord Bellomont, entitled "A full account of the proceedings in relation to Captain Kidd, London, 1701," shows, in the language in which Kidd is referred to, and in the facts which it records, the temper at that time, of the two factions towards him.

‡ History of New York, page 93.

bravery in two engagements with the French. As we have already observed, privateering was not at that time conducted on the strict principles by which it is at this day regulated, and was what has been often termed, very properly, as it then existed, legalized piracy. The ideas of right thus formed by Kidd, were doubtless very loose, and such as would not now be tolerated, but may be offered in extenuation of his subsequent conduct, as the legitimate fruit of the immoral pursuit in which he had been engaged. On the 14th May, 1691, the General Assembly of the Colony of New York, on the recommendation of the Governor and Council, directed one hundred and fifty pounds to be paid him for the good services done this province in his attending here with his vessels before his excellency's arrival.* It is said this service was as a privateer. In 1695, he sailed from New York to London, where he met Robert Livingston, the first of that name who had immigrated to America, and who had gone there to settle some matters with the government.

Early in that year, Richard Coote, Earl of Bellomont, had been named by the king to be governor of New York, with a view, as he was considered a man of firmness and integrity, to suppress piracy and smuggling, both of which were encouraged in the colony, and it was said, even by Governor Fletcher, his predecessor, and by Mr. Nicoll, one of the governor's council. Previous to his departure, which did not take place, in consequence of delay in issuing his commission, until the latter part of the year 1697, he consulted Colonel Livingston, in regard to the complaints made against New York, who recommended Kidd as one who well knew the haunts of the pirates, and the principal persons connected with them, and as a proper person in other respects to be put in command of one of the king's ships to go against them. The proposal was made to the king by the earl, and by him referred to the Admiralty, who, objecting, it was abandoned. But the king gave his approval to the fitting out of a private armed ship, to be commanded by Kidd, for the same purpose. In pursuance of this arrangement, Bellomont induced Lord Chancellor Somers, the Duke of Shrewsbury, the Earl of Rumney, Oxford, Lord High Admiral of England, and Sir Edmund Harrison, a rich merchant, to unite with Livingston and Kidd, in sending out, at an expense of six thousand pounds, a ship called the Adventure Galley, one-fifth of the expense being defrayed by Kidd and Livingston. Kidd himself was averse to the enterprise, but Bellomont insisted that he should go, and told him that his own vessel would be stopped in the river by some great men if he did not go.† He however consented, and two commissions were issued to him, one from the Admiralty, dated 10th December, 1695, as a privateer against the French, and the other under the great seal, dated the 26th of January following, empowering him to apprehend Thomas Tew, William Maze, John Ireland, Thomas Wake, and all other pirates whom he should meet on the coasts of America or elsewhere, and seize "such merchandise, money, goods and wares as should be found on board or with them." After the sailing of the ship, and on the 27th May, 1697, a grant under the great seal passed, that the ships and goods, and other things from the above-named and other pirates should be the sole property of the persons at whose charge the vessel was first fitted out, as far as the king might grant the same; while they, on their part, entered into a covenant to render an account under oath of the

* Journal, (Ed. 1764,) Vol. I., pages 6 and 13.

† Testimony of Colonel Hewson: State Trials, (Fol. Ed.,) Vol. V., page 326.

seizures, and to yield the king a tenth part of all that they should be entitled to under the royal grant. Kidd and Livingston gave bonds to Bellomont for the faithful execution of the trust.*

Thus it appears that the king and the Lord Chancellor of England, the governor of the colony of New York, and several of the nobility were interested in the speculation, at the head of which Kidd was now unwillingly placed; and that in addition to the letters of marque and reprisal against the enemies of England, he held an extraordinary commission, such as has seldom since been granted to a private armed ship, to capture pirates. By the law of nations, any person may take them wherever they may be found without any commission, but in this case it was issued apparently for the purpose of founding a grant of the property found in their possession. So unusual a course gave color to the charges which were afterwards made against the high functionaries interested in the enterprise, and produced articles of impeachment against them by the House of Commons.† It is not an unreasonable conclusion to arrive at, from the circumstances attending the setting forth of the expedition, in connection with the result, that Kidd belonged to that portion of subordinate officials who think it more laudable to show their zeal for their king than for their country or their God, rather than to the class of desperadoes whom it was the professed object of the expedition to disperse.

Kidd sailed from Plymouth in April, 1696, in the Adventure Galley of thirty guns and eighty men, for New York, where he arrived in July following, with a French ship which he had captured on the passage. On his arrival he invited men to enter the service by offering them portions of the booty, after deducting forty shares for himself and the ship, and by that means increased the number of his crew to 155. He then sailed for Madeira, where he arrived on the 6th of February following—thence to Bonavista, where he took in salt—thence to St. Jago, where he bought provisions—thence to Madagascar, where he took in water and provisions—thence to Malabar, about the first of June—thence to Joanna—thence to Mahala, and thence to Joanna again—and thence to the Red Sea, and in July, 1697, to Bab's-Key, a small island at the entrance of that sea. Here was, in the outset, by leaving our coasts immediately, a plain departure from the objects of the expedition, which was publicly announced to be the destruction of the pirates in the American seas, and especially at New York.

Up to this time no vessel had been captured by him since he left New York, embracing a period of nearly a year. It is not unreasonable to suppose he felt disappointed. Before this time, too, no overt act appears to have been committed by him, and no disposition to transcend his powers to have been evinced. Now, however, he informed his men that he was lying in wait for the Mocha fleet, and that he would ballast his vessel with gold and silver. About the middle of August the fleet, fourteen in number, convoyed by a Dutch and an English ship, came down, and Kidd set out in pursuit of them, but on overtaking them he was compelled, after exchanging a few shots, to retire.

We wish to follow the cruiser "as he sailed," in order that his whole route being distinctly followed, we may be able both to discover the real

* Broadhead's Final Report. London Documents.

† It was said that a similar grant and commission had been given to Sir Robert Holmes, in the reign of James II.

motives which actuated him, and to ascertain the amount of property which came into his possession, and finally to see what became of his vessel and booty; and for that reason we will be more particular than otherwise would be necessary or interesting. The change, if it did not exist before he left New York, had now come over his purpose. Disappointed again in his designs upon the fleet, he sailed for Carawar, on the coast of Malabar, and in the way, about the 20th of September, fell in with, and took, a small Moorish vessel called "The Maiden," belonging to Aden, commanded by an Englishman of the name of Parker. Not realizing much from his capture, he ordered some of the men on board to be hoisted by their arms, and beaten with naked cutlasses, in order to disclose what money they had, but to little purpose. He obtained only a bale of coffee, sixty pounds of pepper, and thirty pounds of myrrh, some wearing apparel, and about twenty pieces of Arabian gold, which he divided among his men, giving two pieces to each mess. The myrrh was used in the place of pitch, and the pepper divided among the men.

After remaining a short time at Carawar, he put to sea again, and, encountering a Portuguese man-of-war, engaged in a fight with her for several hours, and then hauled off with ten of his men wounded. He then went to Porto—thence to the coast of Malabar again, where, on one of the islands, his cooper having been killed by the natives, he served them in pretty much the same way as the officers of our late South Sea Exploring Expedition served the Fejeeans; burning their houses and shooting one of the murderers. About this time he fell in with a ship called the Royal Captain, with the commander of which he exchanged civilities. They then parted; but the spirit of robbery, had, however, been excited among his men, and complaints were made by some of them, and especially by one William Moore, a gunner, that he had allowed the Royal Captain to escape. An altercation taking place in consequence between him and this man, in a fit of passion he struck him on the head with a bucket, inflicting a severe wound, of which he died the next day. This is the murder for which he was afterwards tried and convicted. As the ballad has it,

> "I murdered William Moore,
> And left him in his gore,
> Not many leagues from shore,
> As I sailed."

This transaction occurred on the 30th day of October, 1697; and from it Kidd has obtained a character for barbarity which the circumstances of the case do not establish. His cruise was marked by no other act showing a disregard of life; and this one has some justification in the circumstance that it was caused by the piratical disposition of the deceased, and in consequence of an opposite spirit on the part of Kidd. The instrument used shows too that it was not a premeditated act, and gives color to his plea that he had no intention at the time to kill him.

Being still on the coast of Malabar, on the 17th of November, he fell in with another Moorish vessel of 150 tons burthen, from Surat, commanded by a Dutchman of the name of Mitchell, and hoisting French colors, the Moors did the like. He then captured her, and ordered a Frenchman by the name of Le Roy, who was a passenger on board of the vessel, to act the captain, and to pretend to have a French pass. He then declared the ship, which he called "The November," because she was taken in that month, a prize to England, as if observing forms of legal authority, and

intending to claim for his conduct, as he did on his trial, the protection of the commission authorizing him to take French ships. From this vessel he took two horses and some quilts, which he sold at Malabar, and the proceeds of which he divided among his men, and ten or twelve bales of cotton. The vessel itself he carried to Madagascar. In December he captured a Moorish ketch of fifty tons burthen, from which he obtained thirty tubs of sugar, tobacco and myrrh, and a bale of coffee, and then turned her adrift. The goods were divided among the men. In January, he met, near Callicut, a Portuguese ship from Bengal, and took from her two chests of opium, thirty jars of butter, a ton of wax, half a ton of iron, a hundred bags of rice, two chests of East India goods, and some powder, estimated in all to be worth four or five hundred pounds. The opium he sold on the coast, and the produce he divided among the men. The ship was sunk. In the same month he made his great prize in the capture of an Armenian vessel of 400 tons burthen, called the Quedagh Merchant, commanded by an Englishman named Wright. He disposed of a large portion of the goods taken from her, on the coast, to the value of £12,000, which he shared with his crew, reserving forty shares, as stipulated, for himself and owners. While thus disposing of these goods, he frequently plundered the Banian merchants, with whom he traded, and in that way added about five hundred pieces of eight to his booty. He then sailed with the captured ship to Madagascar, where he arrived in the beginning of May, 1798, and where he divided with his men the goods which remained, and which yielded three bales to a share. Each share from this vessel was calculated to have amounted to nearly two hundred pounds in money, and the same amount in goods, or £400 for each share, making the entire prize of about £64,000 value, or £32,000 in money, and the like amount in goods, and Kidd's portion in both of the value of £16,000, the whole number of shares being about 160. Thus, it will be observed, that of this rich prize, containing the great bulk of his spoil, the larger portion went to the men.

When Kidd arrived at Madagascar with the Quedagh Merchant, he found there the Motha frigate, an East India Company's ship, turned pirate, and then called the Resolution, and commanded by an Englishman, one Culliford. Instead of apprehending this man and his crew, as it was his duty to have done, and as they themselves were fearful at first he would do, he immediately entered into friendly communication with them, furnished Culliford with four cannon, and received in return four or five hundred pounds in money.

In justification of his seizure of the Quedagh Merchant, Kidd pretended on the trial, and there was some slight evidence in support of the allegation, that the vessel sailed under a French pass, and that he was, therefore, authorized by his first commission to seize her. The pass, however, was not produced, and he accounted for its absence by averring that it was with some other papers which had been taken from him when he was apprehended in America, and which were kept from him by Lord Bellomont. It appears, however, that he took no pains to have that or any other ship condemned, except the French vessel captured on his voyage to New York. His excuse, therefore, if true, was not sufficient to exculpate him from the crime of piracy so justly chargeable from this omission.

Kidd burnt his ship, the Adventure Galley, at Madagascar, and went on

board of the Quedagh Merchant,* refusing 20,000 rupees which her Armenian merchant owners offered him for her ransom. He exchanged also at Madagascar, the ammunition, arms, and other furniture of the Adventure Galley, for forty bales of calicoes, silks, and other goods, five or six tons of sugar, forty pounds weight of dust and bar gold, and eighty pounds of bar silver.†

Ninety-five of his men left him there, and joined Culliford, and as they had the largest part of the booty, the amount which reached America must have been comparatively small. He induced, however, some few others, five or six in number, to join him, and then sailed for the West Indies, where he arrived in April or May, 1699, in distress for provisions, which he fruitlessly endeavoured to obtain at Anguilla and St. Thomas. He succeeded at length, by means of one Henry Bolton, a merchant of Antigua, whom he met at Mona, in obtaining some from Curacoa. The president and council of Nevis, being advised of his presence in the West Indies, immediately despatched information of it to the government in England, and sent the Queensborough man-of-war in pursuit of him. This was done in pursuance of orders previously received from the board of trade, declaring him a pirate, in consequence more especially of his capture of the Quedagh Merchant, news of which had been sent to England by the East India Company in August, 1698. Circulars had been sent to the governors of all the different plantations in America, with orders to seize him at the first opportunity.

His movements now became important. He had at Anguilla learnt, for the first time, that he had been proclaimed a pirate. We have followed him from his departure from New York in the winter of 1696—7, until his return to the American coast, and have observed the property which he had attained. What became of both is an interesting inquiry at least to the money-diggers. On receiving his supply of provisions from Curacoa, he purchased from Bolton the sloop Antonio, commanded by Samuel Wood of Philadelphia, in which he placed the goods and bullion and gold dust which he had received at Madagascar in exchange for the articles which he sold from the Adventure Galley. The rest of his booty, consisting of about one hundred and fifty bales of goods, seventy or eighty tons of sugar, ten tons of junk iron, fourteen or fifteen anchors, and forty tons of salt-petre, he left in the Quedagh Merchant, with twenty guns in the hold, and thirty mounted. Leaving the Quedagh Merchant in charge of Bolton and twenty-two men, on the south side of Hispaniola, he sailed in the Antonio with forty men for New York. This division of the property, and the leaving of the Moorish ship in the West Indies, prove that Kidd was not sure of a good reception by Bellomont, though his returning home at all, displays a reliance by him on the protection of the influential persons connected with him originally. As he approached New York, he proceeded therefore with great caution. He first put into Delaware Bay, at Lewistown, to make some slight repairs, and take in supplies.‡ News soon spread of his arrival on the coast, and a sloop, well manned, set out to take him.§ This was early in June, 1699. He then

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* *Account of the Proceedings in relation to Capt Kidd*, p. 11.

† According to Kidd himself, in his examination before the Earl of Bellomont on his arrival at Boston, communicated to the *National Intelligencer* of 22nd January, 1845, by Col. Peter Force.

‡ Several persons were apprehended for furnishing these supplies.

§ *Watson's Annals of Philadelphia*, Vol. II., p. 215.

sailed round the east end of Long Island, into the Sound as far as Oyster Bay. In a letter to Bellomont, he states his reason for not going directly to the place where the governor was, that "the clamorous and false stories that have been repeated of me, made me fearful of visiting or coming into any harbour till I could hear from your lordship." At Oyster Bay he communicated with his family and friends in New York, and in a day or two afterwards, a Mr. Emot come down from there, and was taken on board the sloop. Kidd probably learnt here that Lord Bellomont was on a visit to Boston. He therefore turned about, and went to Rhode Island, where he landed Emot, whom he despatched to Boston to engage from Bellomont his safety if he should land. This was given on condition that what Emot said was true. In the meantime, Kidd proceeded to Block Island, where he was joined by his wife and children, in company with a Mr. Clark. After answering Bellomont's letter, he sailed over to Gardiner's Island, for the purpose of landing Mr. Clark on his return to New York. Kidd himself did not land at Gardiner's Island, but he left with Mr. Gardiner a portion of his treasure, which was afterwards delivered up to the commissioners appointed by the governor to receive it at Boston. He then sailed for Boston in the Antonio, where he arrived on the 1st day of July. Kidd was suffered to be at large until the 6th of July, when he was apprehended,* the sloop appraised, and all his property taken possession of by the commissioners, who returned an account, including the treasure delivered to Mr. Gardiner, of 1,111 ounces of gold, 2,353 ounces of silver, 57 bags of sugar, 41 bales of goods, and 17 pieces of canvass.

It is remarkable, that a portion of this property was brought on board of the Antonio by Mrs. Kidd, and afterwards transferred to her lodgings in the house of Duncan Campbell of Boston, where it was seized by the commissioners. Besides several pieces of plate, she brought with her from New York two hundred and sixty dollars in money of her own, and twenty-five English crowns belonging to her maid. This circumstance, taken in connection with the fact that his children also accompanied his wife, seems to show that Kidd contemplated the probable event of returning to the Quedagh Merchant, and had sent for his family in order to be prepared for such a turn in his affairs. Mrs. Kidd petitioned the governor and council to have this property returned, and an order was on the 19th of July made, granting her request.†

On the 17th of July news reached Boston, that after taking out her goods, which were carried to Curacoa, the mate left in charge of the Quedagh Merchant had set her on fire. This information was communicated by Captain Nicholas Evertse, who saw the ship on fire near Hispaniola.‡

From this narrative of Kidd's cruise, derived from the evidence given on his trial, from the pamphlet vindicating Bellomont, from his own letters and examination, and other authentic sources, it is apparent that he did not, on his return, either land on the shores, or sail in the waters of New York westward of Oyster Bay; that both his treasure and sloop

* *Hutchinson* says, (Vol. II., p. 119) that when the officer arrested him, he attempted to draw his sword, but was prevented by a person in company.

† *Massachusetts Records.*

‡ *Account of the proceedings in relation to Capt. Kidd*, p. 10, and *Report of the Commissioners of Trade and Plantations*, in National Intelligencer, *ut supra.*

were carried to Boston, and that the other vessels in which he sailed, the Adventure Galley and Quedagh Merchant, were both destroyed by fire, one at Madagascar, the other near Hispaniola; and that the booty which he had collected otherwise than from the last named vessel, was inconsiderable.

On being advised of Kidd's arrest, the home government despatched a ship of war to take him to England. His case now began to awaken an interest in the public mind. The delay both in his apprehension after his reaching Boston, and in getting him home by the ministry,—for the ship ordered on that duty put back in consequence of a storm; and the partnership existing between him and several of the ministers, both served the purposes of excitement against the administration. He reached London on the 12th of April, 1700, but his trial did not take place until the 8th of May, 1701. He was found guilty on an indictment for the murder of Moore, the gunner, and on five separate indictments for piracy. Several of his men also were tried at the same time, some of whom were convicted, and others acquitted. He was sentenced to be hung, and in the same month was accordingly executed.

At the same time that the trial of Kidd was going on, the House of Commons were proceeding upon an impeachment of the Earl of Oxford and Lord Somers for certain high crimes and misdemeanors, one of which related to their connection with Kidd, and their agency in passing the commissions and grant, as prejudicial to the trade of the kingdom and dishonorable to the king. It was contended that the grant with the commission of Kidd, of the goods of the pirates, before their conviction, was contrary to the law of England and to the bill of rights; and that a grant of the goods of others, taken by them, was violative of the rights of property, which still belonged to the original owners notwithstanding the capture,—piracy working no change of title. To this, it was answered, that a pirate is *hostis humani generis*, and any person may destroy him and thereby gain a property in his goods; and that the grant of the king in this case of the property of others found in the possession of the pirates, was qualified and limited to such title as he might confer,—his title being to the goods of which no owners could be found.* The participation of the accused in the charge and profits of the expedition, authorized only by their own official acts, was highly censurable. On taking the vote, however, the House of Lords stood, contents 56—non-contents 23; thus acquitting them of the charges. The Earl of Bellomont died at New York, on the 5th of March, 1700—1, and before any measures were taken against him, as was supposed would be the case, at least to the extent of a motion to recall him from the provincial government.†

Kidd has left no particular account or justification of his conduct. He insisted, however, on his trial and after his conviction, that he was innocent; that he had been constrained by his men, and prevented by them from bringing his prizes to condemnation, and that he had captured no vessels except those which had French passports, or sailed under the French flag. He was, however, clearly guilty of piracy. He had failed to

* Evelyn is in error when he says, that the lords were impeached for "setting the great seal to the pardon of the arch pirate, who had turned pirate." His statement, however, shows what fuel was used to create the excitement. Dr. Holmes quotes Evelyn without remark. (*American Annals*, Vol. I., p. 473.)

† *Chalmer's Revolt of the Colonies*, Vol. I., p. 290.

have his prizes adjudicated upon for no sufficient reason—probably because he expected to be shielded from harm by the powerful individuals who had sent out his ship, on account of the care he had taken, as he stated in his letter to Bellomont from Block Island, to preserve the owners' interest. It was a vain expectation, for no one of them appears to have exerted himself in his behalf; but on the contrary all seem to have deserted him entirely, as the last means of repudiating his acts.

Within a few months past much has appeared in the public journals in regard to Kidd. A vessel sunk in the North river, at the base of the Dunderbergh, in the Highlands of Hudson river, has been supposed to be his ship, and to contain his treasure. In support of this opinion, two pamphlets have been published; one entitled, "An account of some of the traditions and experiments respecting Captain Kidd's piratical vessel," and the other, "A wonderful mesmeric revelation, giving an account of the discovery and description of a sunken vessel, near Caldwell's Landing, supposed to be that of the pirate Kidd, including an account of his character and death, at a distance of nearly three hundred miles from the place." The traditions referred to, assert that Kidd's vessel was chased up the river by some English men-of-war, and that in order to prevent her capture, those on board set fire to her, and escaped to the shore with as much of the money as they could carry; leaving, however, the largest portion of the gold and silver on board of the wreck, which sank at the entrance of the Highlands. Kidd and some of his men went further up the river in boats, and crossing over the country, reached Boston in that way. These traditions are garnished with sundry marvellous incidents, such as Kidd's running his sword through a child which had been left by its mother in a log house in the woods, as he and the men approached it; and an old Indian's coming all the way from Michigan, many years since, to point out to a young one who accompanied him, the place where the vessel which was loaded with gold had sunk. But the revelations of mesmerism are the most remarkable. A Mrs. Chester, the wife of Charles Chester, of Lynn, in Massachusetts, who declares that she had never heard anything about the sunken vessel, that she had never been on the Hudson in her life, that she had no knowledge of the history of Kidd, and that she had not been spoken to in reference to the subject before being mesmerized, being put in a magnetic state, revealed the sunken vessel at the proper place, and discovered through some extraordinary power that a pirate *had been* its captain, who was a large stout man—not tall—with a large chest, broad breast and shoulders, stout neck, a Roman-like nose, piercing eyes, head very broad, with enormous cautiousness, combativeness, and destructiveness—in a word, having the *tout ensemble* of a bloodthirsty *flibustier*. She also saw in the vessel, chests filled with bars of solid gold, heaps of precious stones, including diamonds, having been once in shot bags, which were now decayed; "gold watches like duck's eggs in a pond of water," a diamond necklace, and of course, near it, the remains of a beautiful young lady. This most singular revelation, as it is corroborated by the traditions, presents us with another triumph of animal magnetism, and must serve not only to advance that science, but to demonstrate how much safer it is to rely upon tradition, than upon record evidence made in courts of justice, held cotemporaneously with the events, or official documents preserved in the public archives. In the present case, mesmerism has taken a progressive step; for it has not only disclosed what *is now*

to be found in the waters of the *Cocks-rack*, but also, who *was there* one hundred and forty-five years ago. In this new application of the science, we may hope not only to see the earth disemboweled, but the very forms and features of the ancient time brought up to our present view. What is more remarkable, if the traditions existed as is pretended, is, that no individual or company should have undertaken, when the witnesses were living, to raise the vessel, especially as so many persons were found near the time of the transactions of Kidd, credulous enough to ruin themselves in vain explorations after his money. But that, perhaps, was not an age of enterprise like the present, nor of—humbug.

Traditionary evidence can be relied on to a limited extent. It is generally based upon some truth. This truth resting in memory alone, is liable to draw to itself the speculations and surmises of each narrator, until they become impressions, and by that means are finally incorporated with it. Especially is this true, of the strange or the marvellous. It is, therefore, not improbable, that there may have been some foundation for the traditions in the present case. By an easy and natural growth in the manner to which we have referred, the sinking of a strange vessel in the Hudson river, and the dispersion of the crew on its banks, giving rise to the conjecture that it was a piratical craft, may have come to have been so established. By a slight gradation, and during an excitement in regard to digging for Kidd's money, which has prevailed at times to a great extent, the vessel and crew may have been supposed to have been his, and in process of time the conjectural connection of his name with the sunken vessel, may have assumed the absolute form in which it is now presented to us. It may even be that the ship said to have been found at the place designated is a piratical vessel, and if so, it would still more readily have been associated with Kidd. The only circumstances of which we have any account, justifying even such a supposition, are very slight; and we now allude to them, not for the purpose of affording a solution of the stories on this subject, but of showing that other events have transpired which may have given rise to those stories. They are these. About the time of Kidd's affair, another pirate, so called, named Bradish, was apprehended in Massachusetts, sent to England, and there tried and executed. He was the boatswain's mate of the ship *Adventure*, which left England in March, 1697—8, on a voyage to the Island of Borneo. Having stopped at Polonais on the way, for water, a portion of the crew took advantage of the absence of the captain and other officers, and some of the crew on shore, to run off with the ship. Bradish was chosen commander, and the money on board the ship, amounting to about $40,000, divided among the mutineers. They do not appear to have captured any vessels. They finally sailed for America, and arrived at Long Island, "where," says a contemporaneous account, "the said Captain Bradish went ashore, carried the most of his money and some rings and jewels with him; committed them to the care of a gentleman on said island; and sent a pilot on board to remove the ship and bring her to an island called Gardner's Island; but the wind not favoring, ran over to Block Island." They then sent two men to Rhode Island to buy a sloop, who were seized by the authorities there, on suspicion of the ship being a pirate. Some sloops, however, coming alongside of the ship, they bought one of them, "and," continues the account, "hired another to transport them and their money, allowing the sloops' men to take what they pleased out of the ship, and got on shore, some in one place, and some in another; landing at farm-houses

where they provided themselves with horses, and scattered into divers parts of the country; the captain and some others with him, coming into this province. Upon the first intelligence whereof, a proclamation was issued, and hue and cries sent through the province, and into the neighboring governments, to pursue and seize all such of them as could be found with their treasure. The captain with ten more of the company, are apprehended and in custody here, in order to a trial; who, upon examination, severally confessed the particulars before recited; and a considerable quantity of money, to the value of near three thousand pounds, with several goods and merchandises taken out of the said ship, are seized. Seven or eight more are apprehended within Connecticut government, and pursuit is making after the rest."* What became of the ship does not appear from the statement before us. We leave the reader to draw his own conclusions, merely remarking, that if he chose to indulge his imagination on the subject, to one-half the extent that others have indulged theirs on the subject of Kidd, he may readily fancy that this ship, or one of the sloops, made its way into the North river, and there some of these men landed in the Highlands, after scuttling their vessel, and escaped in that way.

## Art. V.—COMMERCIAL TREATIES BASED ON RECIPROCITY,

WITH REFERENCE TO THE ADVANTAGES OF A COMMERCIAL TREATY BETWEEN THE UNITED STATES AND THE GERMAN ZOLLVEREIN.

BEFORE entering upon the subject in question, it will be necessary for the sake of placing it in the true light, to present a few introductory remarks on the commercial position and policy of England, and on the tariff of the German Zollverein.

The impediments of commerce thrown in the way of England by the tariffs of the United States, France, and other countries, have been more disastrous to the manufacturing interests of England, than any war in which she has been involved during the last fifty years. It is well known that a great number of political economists, as for instance Adam Smith, Jean Baptiste, Say, and others, recommend to give to a nation who uses, as the English do, almost a prohibitory tariff, full freedom of trade, in order to obtain their goods as cheaply as possible for consumption. But they overlook, in deciding this question, the fact, that England stands like a giant in regard to commerce and manufactures, when compared with other countries, and that she is able, by means of her immense capital, experienced operatives, superior machinery, and by the combination of her manufacturers, to undersell those of other countries, if they are not favored by greater natural advantages; such, for instance, as Saxony enjoys, or by a tariff similar to that of the Zollverein, of which I shall speak hereafter.

It will be seen from a "report of the select committee of the House of Commons on import duties," 1840, page 5, that Saxony is a proof that manufactures can grow without much protection. If such is the case in Saxony, then other countries and states possessing similar natural advantages, which consist in being supplied at home and by the neighboring states with the raw materials of the best quality, and in great abundance,

* This account was transmitted to Secretary Vernon, and may be found in Hutchinson, Vol. II., p. 116.

for the manufactures, with ample and cheap food for the laboring population, can also maintain the manufacturing interests without the intervention of legislation. There is a striking analogy between the wool of Saxony and the cotton of the United States. Both countries save much in the item of freights, thereby enabling them to compete with England notwithstanding her above enumerated advantages. The saving of freights on cotton benefit the United States precisely the same as she would be benefitted in shipping the copper ore of Cuba direct to this country, instead of carrying it to the smelting furnaces of Wales, paying a high freight out and home, and a heavy duty in England, amounting to nearly as much as the original cost of the ore.

By referring to the Merchants' Magazine,* you will find this important subject treated in a clear and elaborate manner, showing conclusively the truth of our position.

We will now enter into an explanation of the principles upon which the tariff of the German States, forming the "Commercial League," (called the Zollverein,) is based. In establishing this tariff, it was laid down as a fundamental truth, that the principle of free trade, and the necessity of obliging other countries who practically do not hold to it, to come at some future time to more generous terms, was correct; and for this reason it was designed to set them an example of moderation, by which manufacturing industry would grow up in the natural progress of development. Consequently, this tariff contains no tax that would amount to a prohibition, as in the case with England and France. All raw materials for manufacture, are imported free of duty, and of course all American raw materials. But the English and French tariffs, on the contrary, tax a number of those articles very highly; for instance, wool, cotton-yarn, etc.

The exportation is free of all duty. The tariff is a revenue tariff, and gives only as such, a *moderate* protection to manufactures of natural growth, which is found sufficient to put them on an equal footing with the foreign manufactured articles in the market, and to secure a sound and firm standing, since a low revenue tariff reconciles all interests, and is therefore not so liable to change. It is the intention, at some future period, gradually to reduce the tariff, in order to keep the manufacturers diligent in the competition with other countries. The basis of this tariff is calculated to be an *ad valorem* duty of 10 per cent on manufactured articles. The report of the select committee of the House of Commons on import duties of 1840, before referred to, justly acknowledges that the tariff of the Zollverein is the lowest in duties, and the least as to the number of articles taxed; their number amounting to about forty-three, but in the English tariff in the year 1840, before the recent reductions, to about eleven hundred and fifty. Articles of luxury are taxed higher; for example, wine, tobacco,—and the latter is taxed incomparably lower than in England.

The Zollverein taxes tobacco from two and a half to three cents per pound, while England taxes it at about seventy-five cents per pound. England consumes, on an average, twenty thousand hogsheads annually, and her treasury derives from it a revenue yearly of about eighteen million dollars. The states of the Zollverein consume annually an average of twenty-eight thousand hogsheads of American tobacco, and derive from it

* See Merchants' Magazine, No. 6, Vol. XII., 1845, page 553.

a yearly revenue of only eight hundred thousand dollars, being only $\frac{1}{13}$ part of that of England; and in the commercial treaty of the German Zollverein offer to considerably reduce this comparatively small duty; and we trust, ere long, that it will be the policy of France to adopt similar liberal views.

This is one of the examples of how much higher, in comparison with Germany, England taxes American articles in her tariff. It is therefore surprising, that the American statesmen do not view with more favor the commerce with the German states.

The tariff of the Zollverein differs from all others, inasmuch as it does not protect everything—it thereby prevents the injuries that result from all other systems. Other countries that aim to protect the agricultural and manufacturing interests, render all kinds of commodities so dear as to materially diminish the exportation to foreign markets, which are supplied by the cheapest producers. In the report quoted above, we see that the German states now supply in part, the markets of South America, Cuba, and the United States, on account of the greater cheapness of the German goods, diminishing the former supplies from England.

It is evident that this tariff is not disadvantageous to the commerce of the United States, since the raw materials of this country are received there free, whereas England and France tax them; and German goods being cheaper, and equal in quality, as the quoted report, pages 5 and 6, acknowledges, to those produced by the two former nations, would make it more profitable.

The use of American materials in Germany, is much greater than appears in the statistics of the imports and exports of the United States, since they come through the free ports of Hamburg and Bremen, which do not belong to the Commercial League, but are in fact her best ports, and in an indirect way through Belgium, which now belongs to the League, and through England, France, and Holland. The American raw materials, particularly cotton and tobacco, to be used in the German factories, amount by the last statistics to more than France consumes in her manufactories.

The colonial policy of England and France, stands in the way of the realization of the reduction in duties, which the American and German states can mutually give to each other, since the latter have no colonial interests to protect. The American and German states would find it to their advantage to assimilate their tariffs, in order to mutually grant those advantages which England, France, and their colonies, enjoy to the exclusion of the rest of the world. By establishing a just and real reciprocity, the United States and Germany would gain great advantages, and the former would acquire more and more customers on the continent of Europe, particularly among the inhabitants of those states, which amount to nearly twenty-six millions, which are incorporated in the German Zollverein, and would moreover become independent of the monopoly system of England and France.

It seems now to be the time that Congress can make advantageous treaties with Germany, England, and France, who all appear desirous to co-operate with the United States in establishing a more liberal and equitable commercial policy. England is situated decidedly better than before the passage of the reform act of 1832, to take an active part in bringing about this consummation much to be wished for, although she cannot do it so easily as Germany; England having gone too far on the way of

high duties. Her colonial policy obliges her, besides, to exclude the United States from favors, which she must, in preference, give to her colonies. The United States and Germany, not possessing colonies, can freely grant mutual advantages. The clause in most of the existing treaties in the United States and other countries, promising them the same advantages as are enjoyed by the most favored nations, is often represented as an impediment to new treaties, but it does not appear to us to be the fact; since, according to true reciprocity, all other states can obtain the same advantages, provided they will grant to the United States similar profitable reductions on their tariff system, as the German states are ready and willing to give. If a treaty of commerce on principles of reciprocity should be made between the United States and the German Zollverein, and England should demand to be placed on a similar footing, she ought to be ready to make the same reductions in her tariff that Germany offers. It would be desirable to establish, by commercial treaties, a firm and permanent basis for their industry, as the continual alteration of the tariff laws with every change of the political parties, is one of the greatest evils that befall the industrial portion of the country, All classes of practical and intelligent men, care little what the rate of duty is, so long as it is stable—and in order to preserve its stability, it must be moderate, otherwise the consumers would be constantly urging an alteration. Some theorists consider treaties of commerce as useless, and vain attempts of two nations for overreaching each other; but the question is not who shall obtain an advantage over the other, but rather how to realize, by reasonable and just means of commercial treaties, an approximation to the principles of free trade, which have been so long and disastrously disturbed. The principles of free trade are admitted to be true, by France and England, in theory, but not put in practice by either. Experience has shown conclusively, that we must seek an approximation to the practical acknowledgment of these principles, by means of treaties, because the ramified commercial interests and movements of the civilized world demand, above all things, a safe basis; nothing proving so destructive as vacillation.

If the United States would manifest a disposition to enter into treaties of commerce with the German states upon the principles of reciprocity, she would thereby probably induce England to change her policy towards the United States by a similar treaty. Every one will remember the apparent uneasiness with which the administration of Sir Robert Peel regarded the endeavors to establish a commercial treaty between the United States and Germany.

The protective policy of England has, in a general way, been much overrated, and the true cause of England's commercial prosperity has been attributable to it, when, in a point of fact, it is chiefly indebted to causes of a very different nature, and to which I shall advert in the concluding part of this article. England owes much for the flourishing state of her manufactures and commerce, to her geographical position—abounding in harbors and mineral productions, fertile soil and temperate climate; always enjoying peace at home, by carrying the war into other countries; by which means all branches of industry could develop themselves, besides having a dense population of intelligent, industrious, and persevering people. She is also greatly indebted to the fact that her farming population enjoyed a favorable position, stimulating to the accu-

mulation of an immense capital, upon which has been based her manufactures and commerce. She has enjoyed, for the last four centuries, what the greater part of Europe has only realized during the present. It is a matter of much gratification, to reflect upon the circumstance that we are blessed with all the advantages of the English agriculturist, in point of soil, climate, persevering industry and intelligence, with an overwhelming superiority in the extent of our lands, and the tenure by which the farmers of our Union hold them, compared with England, or any other country in Europe.

While the European powers, until the year 1816, were almost constantly involved in wars with one another, breaking down their agriculture, manufactures and commerce, the English were building up those great interests, having a ready market among those belligerent nations for their surplus productions. The prices of all descriptions of goods had risen very high, since the enactment of the "corn laws," the increased taxation, and in consequence of the great expansion of the paper currency; but the farmers were able to pay the landholders a high rent for their lands, because they could sell their produce at a proportionably higher price to the manufacturers, and the latter were able to give higher wages to their workmen, since the manufactured goods could be sold at an advanced price to the whole world. It is well known, that the consumers have to pay all the cost of production, taxation, and profits, under which the manufactured goods were produced; hence, the English producers could carry on, in all countries, a monopoly trade on account of the superiority of their goods, and the absence of manufacturing skill and capital in other countries. From the time of the French revolution to the peace of 1815, they increased and enhanced the value of their productions so much, as to receive all expenses, including the capital invested, taxes, and profits, and could burthen with them the foreign consumers. The latter paid, indeed, on those manufactured goods, the high ground rent—high wages and duties, which the producers had advanced. England rendered in this way, the whole world contributory, and threw the restitution of a great portion of her state debts on the shoulders of foreign consumers. This situation of things is changed, and the English duties now fall partly on the English and partly on the foreign consumers, since the competition between them and the foreign manufacturer has become closer. Since 1815, almost general peace has reigned in Europe, and all branches of industry have began to develop themselves, but they found that England's wealth, skill, and experience, in the meantime, had built up an enormous superstructure that gave her a vast ascendancy over other countries. The extent to which steam power has been applied to all kinds of machinery, almost annihilating time and space, had also given to her great facilities. She could receive and execute orders in a tithe of the time European countries could, and thereby was enabled to supply foreign markets with her manufactures.

Steamboats and railroads alter the commerce of cities and countries, and concentrate business in the seaports and manufacturing districts. They would have given a decided preponderance to England, had not the greater proximity of the raw materials, the cheapness of labor, and the increased skill of the manufacturers of continental Europe counterbalanced it. The English ascribed the latter effects, so far as Germany is concerned, only to the tariff of the Zollverein. But the results of that tariff have

been advantageous to manufactures and commerce, principally by creating freedom of trade through all the German states of the League—the only condition in which it is possible for her internal industry to prosper. They overlook that its basis is only an *ad valorem* duty of 10 per cent, as above mentioned, not a protective tariff; the nearest approximation to principles of free trade existing in any country. They ought to acknowledge that with a nation of such a commercial policy commercial treaties might be easily and advantageously formed, free from liability of change on account of their equity.

A commercial treaty with the German states will be probably found not less profitable to the United States, than that entered into by them with China. We do not mean to assert, that by this treaty being carried into effect, the chances are so great of a few amassing large fortunes as with that of China, but we do maintain that the great masses will derive fully as much benefit. We deem the subject one of great importance, and shall resume it in a future number of the Merchants' Magazine.

## Art. VI.—THE FRANKLIN INSTITUTE OF PENNSYLVANIA.

The Franklin Institute of the state of Pennsylvania, for the promotion of the Mechanic Arts, was incorporated by an act of the legislature, which, on the 30th of March, 1824, became a law. The objects of this association, as expressed in the charter, are, "The Promotion and Encouragement of Manufactures, and the Mechanic and Useful Arts, by the establishment of Popular Lectures on the Sciences connected with them; by the formation of a Cabinet of Models and Minerals, and a Library; by offering Premiums on all subjects deemed worthy of encouragement; by Examining all new Inventions, submitted to them, and by such other means as they may judge expedient." Those objects have been all faithfully accomplished, and the institution is now established on a permanent and solid foundation.

The association now numbers more than two thousand members. It possesses, as its own property, a spacious edifice, in Seventh-street, above Chestnut, one of the most prominent sites in the city of Philadelphia. With a large reading-room, containing the library, which embraces about three thousand five hundred volumes, including the most prominent European mechanical journals, and various other apartments which are devoted to the purposes of the delivery of lectures, the deposit of geological and mineralogical cabinets, the cabinet of models connected with inventions in the useful arts, and the meetings of the association. It enjoys, in those respects, ample accommodations, not only for the members, who actively participate in these transactions, but also for the strangers who are, from time to time, invited to partake of the conveniences which are freely proffered to them by the society.

In the organization of the institution, there are various standing committees, viz: those on science and the arts, the library, the cabinet of minerals and geological specimens, the cabinet of arts and manufactures, on exhibitions, on meetings, and on meteorology. The series of lectures upon the various topics connected with science and the arts, is delivered by some of the most distinguished individuals connected with their various branches; and those lectures commence on the second Monday evening in

November, and are continued on the evening of Monday, Wednesday and Friday, for twenty-one weeks, including the introductory lectures.

Under the auspices of the association, there are, also, annual exhibitions of the various products of American manufactures, in which the most finished specimens of such products, as well as those which are connected with mechanical enterprise, are exposed to public inspection; and to the most approved of such specimens, premiums of various kinds, as well as gold and silver medals, are awarded. By a will, executed in 1816, John Scott, a chemist residing in the city of Edinburgh, bequeathed to the corporation of the city of Philadelphia, the sum of $4,000 in the funded 3 per cent stock of the United States; at the same time directing the interest that might become receivable thereon, to be laid out in premiums, which were to be distributed among ingenious men and women, who might originate useful inventions, but no such premium to exceed twenty dollars; and, that therewith, there should be given a copper medal with this inscription: "*To the most deserving.*" By an ordinance which passed the select and common councils of that city, Feb. 27th, 1834, the award of the aforesaid premiums and medals was invested in the Franklin Institute of the state of Pennsylvania, for the promotion of the mechanic arts: and by the managers of the institute, the duty of examining inventions and improvements, and of recommending the award of medals and premiums, has been devolved upon the Committee on Science and the Arts. There is, likewise, issued, under the auspices of the institute, a monthly journal, entitled, "A Journal of the Franklin Institute of the state of Pennsylvania, and American Repository of Mechanical and Physical Science, Civil Engineering, the Arts and Manufactures, and of American and other patented inventions, published each month, by the Franklin Institute, at their Hall." This journal was commenced as early as 1826, and edited by a professor of mechanics in the institute; it has been continued down to the present time.

We have thus, briefly, described the organization of the institute, for the purpose of exhibiting its actual character, which is not generally known in the city where it is established, and much less in the other parts of the Union. We had the privilege of attending the Fifteenth Exhibition of American Manufactures by the Franklin Institute, which opened for that purpose on the 21st of October last, at the Hall of the Museum, situated in Ninth, below Chestnut-street, in the city of Philadelphia. There were here arrayed the various products of manufactured and mechanical industry, in a form which could not fail to gratify all those who are interested in the progress of the useful arts, and the trophies and triumphs of domestic industry.

It were impracticable, even did space permit, to specify the various products of domestic skill, which were arrayed upon the walls, and that were accumulated in the body of the hall—articles which came from the workshops of the trades in their unnumbered forms, as well as from the large manufacturing establishments that are propelled altogether by machinery. One of the prominent objects in the lower room, which was mainly devoted to a display of the manufactures of iron and other metals, was a large locomotive railroad engine, from the manufactory of Messrs. Baldwin & Whitney, in the city of Philadelphia. Nor could we particularly describe the display of gorgeous carpets, the highly ornamented and colored lanterns, the cut-glass lamps and chandeliers, the massive and richly chased silver plate, the various species of marble found in the state of Pennsyl-

vania; some of the mantels of this material being elaborately sculptured; nor shall we do more than allude to the highly finished upholstery of various kinds—the hats, woollen and cotton cloths, and other products of the workshop and the loom, which indicate the rapid progress of the useful enterprise of that great manufacturing and mechanical region, of which Philadelphia is a concentrating point, as well as the general advance of the arts throughout the Union.

The benefits of associations, like that of the Franklin Institute, are obvious. By uniting individuals, who are engaged in the same pursuits, in well organized societies, that are constituted upon just principles, and for common objects, which afford individuals an opportunity for the interchange of mutual sentiments and opinions, they tend to create a salutary spirit of good fellowship, promote the common intelligence, and provide the means of acting with effect, both for the amelioration of their own condition, and for the advancement of the common prosperity. The individual members who compose them, while scattered through the community, in their individual capacity, would be comparatively powerless; but when united in this organized form, they are enabled to act with effect. Besides the advantages accruing from such associations to the individual members, by encouraging proper sentiments among themselves, and by enabling them to act for the public good, it is the influence of such associations to benefit, essentially, the condition of manufactures. By providing a place for the exhibition of the most excellent specimens of such manufactures, they tend to make known their existing state, the advances which have been already made, and the names of those who are the most meritorious for their industry and skill. The distribution of gold and silver medals, and other premiums, is also calculated to excite emulation among those who are employed in the same pursuits, and thus to induce exertion in the exercise of that industry and skill which contribute to the progress of the useful arts. Those medals constitute honorable pledges of society favor, and enduring warrantees of the quality of the manufactured and mechanical products of those upon whom they are conferred.

Besides, the possession of a library to which all may have access, and the institution of various series of popular lectures upon the numerous subjects connected with science and the arts, freely opened to the members of such associations, and their children, are calculated to enlighten the minds of those persons, not only regarding general subjects, but also relating to the particular occupation in which each may be engaged. It is not merely proper that one should understand the mode of erecting a column, or of dyeing a carpet, in order to become an intelligent operative, but that he should understand the science, as well as the art of the occupation in which he may be engaged, the system of principles upon which it is founded, as well as the system of rules by which it is governed. Thus, alone, are all made intelligent operatives, and capable of performing, understandingly and satisfactorily, the duties which devolve upon them.

Another benefit of such associations, is the promotion of industry. It is made a law of our human condition—the mandate which first issued from the garden of Eden, that occupation—occupation should be the means by which we subsist; and it is also the source of happiness. It is not, indeed, necessary that this occupation should be all of the same kind, for under the system of every well-ordered civilized state, there is necessarily a division of labor; and this labor is to be performed upon the ocean and

the land, in the cabinet and the field, the pulpit and the garrison, the counting-house and on ship-board, either with the mouth or the hands; and all labor is honorable. The condition of civilized society, moreover, renders it necessary that industry should be exerted not only upon that which is merely useful, but also upon those objects of literature, science, and art, which contribute to the greatness and glory of a nation. The organization of such institutions is, therefore, calculated to promote industry, by assembling in honorable companionship, and in common enterprises, those who are employed in its active pursuits, and by granting tokens of merit to those who most excel in their useful achievements. By promoting industry, it thus tends to furnish occupation, and effectually to exclude that immorality and vice, which are the result of reckless leisure, and unprincipled idleness.

One of the prominent advantages of institutions of this sort is, to do away, in a great measure, that spirit of party, which is, alike, the source of popular delusion, the offspring of selfish ambition, and political corruption. It can hardly have escaped the observing mind, that party spirit, the desire of accomplishing individual objects, for merely selfish purposes, without reference to the general benefits which they may confer upon the nation, has constituted one of the most degrading features of our own country. It has darkened the public understanding, and subsidised a prolific press. That there will be honest differences in a free government like our own, concerning the subordinate tendencies of great public measures, it is reasonable to anticipate; but it is difficult to suppose that intelligent statesmen can very widely dissent, concerning these important national questions, which have been made the subject of mature deliberation, exhausting discussion, and ample experience, year after year, both in our own country and in Europe. How small do the questions of placing this or that man, in or out of office, dwindle before those solid principles of solemn legislation, which lie at the foundation of permanent national prosperity, human freedom, and political justice. This party spirit, fomented by small and scheming demagogues for selfish ends, did not exist to the same extent in the times of our political ancestors. It was rebuked by Washington during the latter period of his life. It is rebuked by the spirit and example of the pioneers of our country; by those who led the way to our existence as an independent nation. Let us be admonished from their tombs. We would invoke the spirit of patriotism against the spirit of party in the language of Lord Byron, in his "Age of Bronze," and call up from their tombs the spirits of the past:—

> "Henry, the forest-born Demosthenes,
> Whose thunder shook the Philips of the seas,
> And stoic Franklin's energetic shade,
> Robed in the lightnings which his hand allay'd,
> And Washington, the tyrant-tamer, wake
> To bid us blush for these old chains, or break."

It is the influence of such associations as the Franklin Institute, to diminish the influence of party spirit, and to direct the attention of organized bodies away from the designs of scheming demagogues to the improvement of their own condition, and the increase of their own intelligence. It is their direct consequence not to tear down, but to build up; and we could wish that they might be established upon just principles throughout the Union.

There can be no doubt that they have already tended, eminently tended, to advance the progress of the useful arts throughout the country. If we cast our eyes back for a single half century, we find the advances in the useful arts to have been most marked and rapid. The period has not long elapsed since those implements of domestic convenience, which have now become most common, were first introduced, and the influence of inventions, extending through the whole circle of agricultural, commercial, manufacturing, and mechanical enterprise, has already greatly increased the comforts of men, and created a revolution in the present condition of the world. The human mind is so constituted, that it is not merely the useful, but the elegant, which is calculated to gratify the taste of man; and hence it is that we find the civilized nations of the old world, strewn with the monuments of ancient and modern grandeur, towering toward the heavens in the pride of their glory, or crumbling in ruins upon the surface of the soil.

Whatever may be the influence of such works of art, which, perhaps, may be considered questionable, our own nation, in those respects, is yet in its infancy. We are now but laying the foundations of future greatness and glory. Ages may elapse before those works of art, which live in the architectural structures, breathe in the sculpture, and glow upon the canvass of the old world, will be accumulated upon our own soil. Yet we are still beginning to decorate the land with their monuments. The present condition of the arts with us, exhibits also a broad contrast to the simple structures of colonial times, and, indeed, of the early period of our independence. Naval, domestic, and ecclesiastical architecture, have, moreover, advanced in proportion to the general progress of the nation. The granite and marble of the soil are springing up into a thousand fabrics, which are erected for domestic purposes, as well as those of legislation, jurisprudence, commerce, learning, charity, and other objects; and the spires of churches are rising toward the heavens in a thousand forms of architectural beauty. It is also true, that from the mutual dependence of all mechanical pursuits upon each other, the general progress of the useful arts is proportioned to the prosperity of those who are the active agents of their advancement.

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## Art. VII.—MORAL USES OF COMMERCE AND THE SEA.

To the moralist and the merchant, and the latter should not exist without the spirit of the former, the Ocean has a deep and interesting association. Borne on its mighty bosom, and inspired by its presence, a reverend gentleman delivered a discourse on board the packet ship Victoria, during her passage to Europe,* on its "moral uses." There is not, perhaps, in the universe, an object so well calculated to awaken human admiration, at the conquest of the material and the physical by the moral and the intellectual, as the ship burthened with her treasures, careering over the deep, with her sturdy mariners. How much of the world's progress has been effected through the influence of navigation and commercial intercourse.

* A discourse on the "Moral Uses of the Sea," delivered on board the packet ship Victoria, Captain Morgan, at sea, July, 1845, by Horace Bushnell, D. D., published by request of the Captain and passengers. New York: M. W. Dodd.

The various natural and moral uses of the sea, are briefly but eloquently referred to in the discourse before us, in a series of illustrations as forcible as they are beautiful. Referring to the fact that the oceans and the seas have contributed to the moral and social advancement of the race, by separating one part of the world even from the knowledge of another, and preserving it from discovery and occupation at an advanced period of history, Mr. Bushnell thus speaks of the discovery of America :—

"Had the territory of the United States been conjoined to the eastern shore of Asia, or the western of Europe, or had there been no oceans interposed to break the continuous circle of land, it is obvious that the old and worn-out forms of civilization would have wanted a spur to reform and improvement that is now supplied. When, at length, the New World was discovered, then was man called out, as it were, to begin again. The trammels of ancient society and custom, which no mere human power could burst, were burst by the fiat of Providence, and man went forth to try his fortunes once more, carrying with him all the advantages of a previous experience. I set up for the United States no invidious claim of precedence. We acknowledge our rawness and obscurity, in comparison with the splendor and high refinement of more ancient nations. We only claim it as our good fortune that we are a new nation, peopled by men of a new world, who had new principles to be tested, for the common benefit of mankind. As such, the eye of the world is upon us, and has been for many years. The great thought of our institutions—the happiness and elevation of the individual man—is gradually and silently working its way into all the old fabrics of legitimacy in Christendom, and compelling the homage of power in all its high places. Whatever motion there has been in European affairs for the last half century—all the mitigations of law, the dynasties subverted, the constitutions conceded, the enlarged liberty of conscience and the press, popular education—everything that goes to make society beneficent—has been instigated, more or less directly, by the great idea that is embodied and represented in the institutions of the United States. This same great idea, the well-being and character of the individual man, has been brought forth, too, to offer itself to the world, just at the right time. Without it, we may well doubt whether the institutions of Europe had not come to their limit, beyond which they had not, in themselves, any power of advancement. Had it come earlier, Europe was not ready for it. The immense advantage that is thus to accrue to mankind, as regards the great interests of truth, society, and religious virtue, from the fact that our Western Hemisphere was kept hidden for so many ages, beyond an impassable ocean, to be opened, in due time, for the planting and propagation of new ideas, otherwise destined to perish, no mind can estimate. Nor is this process of planting yet exhausted. There are islands in the Southern Ocean larger than England, that are yet to become seats of power and of empire, and possibly to shine as lights of Antarctic history eclipsing those of the north; or, if not eclipsing, giving to all the northern climes, both of the Eastern and Western Worlds, the experiment of new principles, needful to their progress and happiness."

The uses of the seas is thus happily applied by Dr. B. to the great doctrine of human progress, as illustrated in the extension of commerce, and the diffusion of liberal and enlightened views among the children of a common Father, scattered over the terrestrial globe. Commerce on the ocean, it would seem, was thus fulfilling the inspired declaration of John, in the Revelations, that there "shall be no more sea."

"Were there no seas, were the globe covered by a continuous sheet of land, how different the history of the past from what it has been! how different the moral and intellectual state of human society from what it now is! There being no medium of commerce, save that of land travel, no intercourse could exist between nations remote from each other. They would know each other only by a kind of tradition, as now we know the past. Tradition, too, in its long and un-

certain transit across the longitude of the world, would clothe itself in fable, and we, instead of being made to feel the common brotherhood of man as now, should probably be fast in the belief that the opposite hemisphere of the world is peopled by giants, Centaurs, Anthropophagi, and such-like fabulous monsters. There would, of course, be no commerce, except between nations that are adjacent; and society, being life without motion or stimulus, would rot itself down into irredeemable bigotry and decrepitude. God would not have it so. On the ocean, which is the broad public highway of the Almighty, nations pass and repass, visit and revisit each other, and those which are remote as freely as those which are near. And it is this fluid element that gives fluidity and progress to the institutions and opinions of the race. It is only in the great inland regions of the world, as in Central Africa and Asia, that bigotry and inveterate custom have their seat. In these vast regions that never saw the sea, regions remote from the visits of commerce and the moving world, men have lived from age to age without progress, or the idea of progress, crushed under their despotisms, held fast in the chains of indomitable superstition, rooted down like their trees, and motionless as their mountains. In the meantime, the shores and islands of the world have felt the pulse of human society, and yielded themselves to progress. It is, in a word, this fluid sea, on whose bosom the free winds of heaven are wafting us to-day, which represents all mobility and progress in the human state. Without this interposed, the rock-based continents themselves were not more fixed than the habits and opinions of mankind. On the other hand, you will observe that the prejudices of men who live upon and by the waters are never invincible. They admit of change, somewhat by habit and association, as their element changes, and they shift their sail to the winds. Hence it was, in part, may we not believe, that our Saviour began his mission on the shores of Genesaret, and among the boatmen there. Out of these, too, he chose his apostles, because they had the ductility requisite to receive new truths and new opinions of duty. Among them he had few prejudices to encounter, while at Jerusalem every mind was set against him with obstinacy as firm as the rocks of Zion. So it was never a Babylon, or a Timbuctoo, or any city of the inland regions, that was forward to change and improvement. But it was a Tyre, queen of the sea; a Carthage, sending out her ships beyond the Pillars of Hercules, to Britain and the Northern Isles; an Athens, an Alexandria—these were the seats of art, and thought, and learning, and liberal improvement of every sort. So, too, it was the Italian commercial cities that broke up the dark ages, and gave the modern nations that impulse which set them forward in their career of art and social refinement, and remotely speaking, of liberty."

Another and more impressive view of the moral utility of seas and oceans, in bringing all regions and climes into correspondence and commercial interchange, is happily alluded to in the discourse. Nations fortified, by oceans and seas, against injury from each other, are yet united for the purposes of mutual benefit by this medium of commerce, the Ocean.

With a few passages on the mission of commerce, and its influence in bringing forward nations in civilization and art, we close the present article:—

"The spirit of commerce, too, is the spirit of peace, its interest the interest of peace, and peace is the element of all moral progress, as war is the element of all barbarism and desolation. Every ship that sails the ocean is a pledge for peace to the extent of its value—every sail a more appropriate symbol of peace than the olive-branch itself. Commerce, too, has at length changed the relative position of nations. Once upon a footing of barbarism, they are now placed upon a footing of friendship and civilization. In the most splendid days of Athens, piracy was a trade, not a crime; for it was the opinion that nations are naturally hostile, and will, of course, prey upon each other. But now, at length, commerce has created for itself a great system of international and commercial law, which, to a certain extent, makes one empire of all the nations, maintaining the rights of person and

property, when abroad upon the ocean, or in other lands, as carefully and efficiently as if there were but one nation or people upon the globe. Search the history of man, from the beginning till now, you will find among all the arts, inventions and institutions of the race, no one so beneficent, none that reveals so broad a stride of progress, as this. And it promises yet to go on, extending its sway, till it has given rules to all the conduct of nations, provided redress for all injuries, and thus lawed out forever all war from the earth.

"The nations engaged in commerce will, of course, be the most forward nations. In perpetual intercourse with each other, they will ever be adopting the inventions, copying the good institutions, and rectifying the opinions, one of another; for the man of commerce is never a bigot. He goes to buy, in other nations, commodities that are wanted in his own. He is, therefore, in the habit of valuing what is valuable in other countries, and so, proportionally, are the people or nation that consumes the commodities of other countries. And so much is there in this, that the government, the literature, nay, even the religion of every civilized nation, must receive a modifying influence from all the nations with whom it maintains an active commerce. In opinions, literature, arts, laws—nay, in everything—they must gradually approximate, till they coalesce, at last, in one and the same catholic standard of value and excellence. Commerce is itself catholic, and it seems to be the sublime purpose of God, in his appointment, to make everything else so, that, as all are of one blood, so, at last, they shall be one conscious brotherhood.

"In the meantime, the nations most favored in art and civilization are approaching, by the almost omnipresent commerce they maintain, all the rude and barbarous nations of the world, carrying with them, wherever they go, all those signs of precedence by which these nations may be impressed with a sense of their backwardness, and set forward in a career of improvement. They need only be visited by the ships, or especially the steam-vessels, of European commerce, to see that they are in their childhood, and there must remain, except as they adopt the science and the institutions of European nations. What, consequently, do we behold? Not the wilds of Northern Russia only, not the islands only of the sea, becoming members of European laws, arts and manners—but the throne of Siam inquiring after the methods and truths of the west; all British India studying English, in a sense more real than the study of words; Muscat sending over to examine and copy our arts; both branches of the Mahomedan empire receiving freely, and carefully protecting, Christian travellers, and adopting, as fast as they can, the European modes of war and customs of society; China beginning to doubt whether she is indeed the Celestial Empire, and doomed, ere twenty years are gone by, to be as emulous of what is European as Egypt or Turkey now is. All this by the power of commerce. They feel our shadow cast on their weakness, and their hearts sink within them, as if they had seen a people taller than they. For the same reason, too, the false gods are trembling in their seats the world over, and all the strongholds of spiritual delusion shaking to the fall. The sails of commerce are the wings of truth. Wherever it goes (and where does it not?) the power of science, and all that belongs to cultivated manhood, is felt. The universal air becomes filled with new ideas, and man looks out from the prison of darkness in which he has been lying, chained and blinded, sees a dawn arising on the hills, and feels the morning-breath of truth and liberty."

## Art. VIII.—COMMERCIAL LAWYERS.

"The sparks of all the sciences in the world are raked up in the ashes of the law."

It has been justly considered that the range of a lawyer's study should be co-extensive with nature herself. Some of the most eminent advocates have been, in early life, indebted to their knowledge of subjects collateral to their professional studies for their subsequent success at the bar. It has led to their being retained in cases of public importance, which have

brought them into notice, and thereby laid the foundation for their future eminence. Lord Erskine, one of the most brilliant luminaries of the English bar, was for several years in the navy before studying law. After he was admitted, the circumstance of his having been in the navy, was the cause of his being retained in an important case at a time when, in his own language, he "had not a shilling in his pocket;" upon which occasion he is said to have delivered "an animated and brilliant argument, which at once established his reputation—a reputation without an equal in the annals of forensic eloquence." From that time, business poured in upon him. He was afterwards retained as one of the counsel for Admiral Keppel, at the suggestion of Mr. Dunning, (Lord Asburton,) the case requiring a knowledge of nautical phrases with which Mr. Dunning was not acquainted.

The numerous questions constantly arising in our courts, relating to the disposition of large amounts of property, and involving the life or death of individuals, renders an acquaintance with the various departments of human knowledge of primary importance to the lawyer. It is natural that persons, who have cases which require information upon either anatomy, physiology, chemistry, medical jurisprudence, or commerce, should employ such advocates as are best informed upon the subject appropriate to their respective cases. Hence, those lawyers who have made other subjects besides law their study, are more certain of distinction, and a lucrative practice, than those who are *mere lawyers*. A knowledge of general subjects is not only important in conducting great trials, but is also, often, of vital importance in enabling an advocate to give proper advice in relation to the bringing of actions. In illustration of this point, Dr. Arnott, in his "Elements of Physic," mentions an anecdote worth repeating. "A young, not yet skilful Jehu, having run his phæton against a heavy carriage on the road, foolishly and dishonestly excused his awkwardness in a way which led to his father prosecuting the old coachman for furious driving. The youth and his servant both deposed, that the shock of the carriage was so great as to throw them over their horses' heads: and thus they lost their case by unwittingly proving the faulty velocity was their own." The lawyer who advised the bringing of such an action, was not acquainted with the simple elements of the doctrine of forces.

Men are often induced into long and fruitless litigation, ending in disappointment and expense, and sometimes in the loss of a just claim, in consequence of improper or injudicious advice being given to them before bringing their action.

If in cases arising out of life policies, criminal cases, and the descent of real property, a knowledge of anatomy, physiology and medical jurisprudence is necessary, surely in those which involve the right of commercial property, an acquaintance with commerce cannot be dispensed with. In this country, especially in our large cities, a large part of the legal business is of a commercial character. In order, therefore, to properly and ably manage suits arising out of the large and complicated character of our commerce, our lawyers should be familiar with the history and details of commerce. Many ludicrous mistakes have occurred by reason of the ignorance of judges and lawyers upon general and commercial subjects. It is related of an English barrister, that in examining a witness, he asked, "where a ship (in question,) was at a particular time?" "Oh," replied the witness, "the ship was then in quarantine." "In Quarantine

was she? and pray sir, *where* is Quarantine?" Mr. Chitty, whose writings are well known to the bar, mentions the case of a judge, who after being engaged six hours in the trial of an insurance case, on a policy of insurance upon Rûssia duck, in his charge to the jury complained that no evidence had been given to show how Russia duck, (mistaking the *cloth* of that name for the *bird*,) could be damaged by sea-water, and to what extent.

We recollect being present at a trial in New York state, in which a number of accounts between the parties were put collaterally in evidence to explain a point arising in the trial. After the case was closed, the judge undertook to submit it to the jury. To do so clearly, it became necessary that the accounts should be commented upon and explained, so that the jury would understand distinctly what they were to pass upon. The judge commenced the task thus imposed, but had not proceeded far before he became confused and embarrassed, from his ignorance of the mode in which merchants kept their accounts, and the commercial terms sometimes used by them, and after vainly struggling to explain the matter, gave it up without clearing away the mist which he had created, and submitted the case in this manner to the jury, to the great injustice of at least one of the litigating parties. The jury not understanding the question from the *luminous* charge of the judge, deemed it most easily disposed of by rendering their verdict for the plaintiff, and accordingly did so. If no right of appeal had existed, manifest injustice would have been done to the defendant; and even with his appellate right he was put to additional delay, trouble and expense.

Every one who attends our law courts will often be surprised at the want of a proper commercial knowledge, frequently manifested by the bench and bar. This would be more obvious, were it not common to refer cases to merchants involving commercial questions. Sometimes this course is undoubtedly necessary, especially where the accounts are long and complicated, to avoid occupying unnecessarily the time of the court; but in a large number of instances it should not be done, as it entails upon the defeated party a heavy additional charge for referee's fees.

In the management of an important commercial trial, it must be apparent to all who have thought of this subject, that the success of even a good cause will depend materially upon the information of the lawyer upon commercial subjects. Upon that will rest his skill in the examination of witnesses, and the final submission of the cause in a clear manner to those who are to decide. In some instances, even a knowledge of the details of commerce are essential. Such being the case, it is a matter of surprise that so few direct their attention to this subject. While a large part of our lawyers are distinguished as special pleaders, and real estate and criminal advocates, but a small part are eminent as commercial lawyers.

So important have some, who have risen to high judicial and legal prositions, deemed an acquaintance with mercantile affairs, that, after being called to the bar, they have devoted much time to the study of commerce, and even attended lectures on book-keeping, to acquaint themselves with the various modes of keeping accounts, and we know that they have been much indebted to it for their success at the bar. The position of a sound commercial lawyer is enviable. It secures a lucrative practice and ultimate fame. We regard it, therefore, of the highest importance for an

American lawyer to be acquainted with the history and details of commerce, and, indeed, with all subjects of a mercantile character, as they are all more or less interwoven with the legal business of the country. Numerous facilities are afforded for remedying the difficulty where it exists, and no adequate excuse can be offered for the want of such knowledge. Elementary works exist upon every branch of the subject, which, in connection with the able publications which appear monthly, treating it more in detail, are fully adequate to supply any deficiency. The perusal of these works and publications, at the same time they qualify a lawyer for the better and more able discharge of his duties, would afford relaxation from the severer studies imposed upon him by his profession.

The proverb, that the "lady common-law must lie alone," if it ever was, is now no longer true. The day has gone by when the advocate must be a *mere* lawyer. If he seeks to discharge, faithfully, ably, and discreetly his duties—to become able and distinguished, he must place no limit to his knowledge. "A lawyer professeth true philosophy, and therefore should not be ignorant of beasts, fowls, creeping things, nor of the trees, from the cedar of Lebanon to the hyssop that springeth out of the wall."

## Art. IX.—UNITED STATES' BRANCH MINT AT NEW ORLEANS.

The United States' Branch Mint, at New Orleans, is situated on what was once called Jackson Square, being nearly the former site of Fort St. Charles. It is an edifice of the Ionic order, of brick, plastered to imitate granite, having a centre building projecting, with two wings. It is strongly built, with very thick walls, and well finished. Its interior arrangements are spoken of by Norman,* as "such as not to discredit the distinguished engineer who planned them." The total length of the edifice, is 282 feet, and the depth about 108; the wings being 29 by 81, and the whole three stories in height. It was began in September, 1835, and the building was perfectly completed at a cost of $182,000. The square in which it is built, is surrounded by a neat iron railing, on a granite basement. The coinage of 1844, was, of gold, $31,010: silver, $1,198,500; making in all $4,208,500.†

The following account of the process of coinage in the Branch Mint of the United States, at New Orleans, was prepared by Dr. D. L. Riddell, an officer therein. As it is drawn up by an intelligent gentleman, practically acquainted with the details of coinage, we have deemed it worthy of transfer to the pages of the Merchants' Magazine:—

Account of the Process of Coinage in the Branch Mint at New Orleans.

Silver and gold are coined at this mint into dollars, halves, quarters, dimes, half-dimes, eagles, half-eagles, and quarter-eagles. Gold is presented to us in the form of foreign coin, bars, dust, and old jewelry; the most abundant foreign gold coins being English sovereigns, French napoleons, patriot doubloons, and the coinage of different German states; while the unwrought gold is principally from the state of Alabama. Mexican dollars constitute the greatest bulk of the material for silver coinage.

* Norman's New Orleans and Environs.

† For statistics of coinage, at the Branch Mint at New Orleans, etc., for a series of years, see Merchants' Magazine for March, 1844, Vol. X., No. 3, page 248.

Any person bringing good precious metal to this mint, for coinage, is entitled to receive back, in American coins, exactly the same amount of fine gold or fine silver which he brings, without deduction or expense; the United States government taking upon itself the expense of coinage. If the bullion, containing both gold and silver, require the operation of parting, or, if toughening be required, then the actual expense of these operations is deducted from the value of the bullion, in favor of the government. Bullion is received by the treasurer, weighed in presence of the owner by the weigher, who gives a receipt for the actual weight in troy ounces and decimals. If it consist of mixed coins, or various bars, it is sent into the melting department, placed in a red-hot, clean black-lead pot, melted, stirred up and mixed, and cast into a homogeneous bar. It is next given to the assayer, who cuts off a piece of the bar, rolls out the piece, clips it with shears, and weighs out exactly 1000 milligrammes thereof, which he wraps up in lead, and places upon a white hot dish of bone earth: the whole melts, and, oxidizing, everything present is usually absorbed by the bone earth but the silver or gold. If pure silver alone remain, its weight in milligrammes shows how many thousands fine the bullion is. The result is, however, corrected by what is called the humid assay, which depends on a definite precipitation of chloride of silver, from a solution of nitrate of silver, by definite measures of a solution of common salt of known strength. If the assay be one of gold, after the buttota of metal has been removed from the bone earth, it is melted with about three times its own weight of pure silver, the alloy is rolled out and repeatedly subjected to the action of hot nitric acid, which dissolves and removes the silver, but leaves the gold. The latter is carefully washed, dried, annealed at a red heat, and subsequently weighed in milligrammes, by which the proportion of gold in 1000 parts is made apparent. With these data, the assayer then estimates the value of the bullion, whereupon the treasurer, if called upon, promptly pays the amount to the owner.

Parcels of bullion, of known value, are, from time to time, delivered and debited to the melter and refiner, who manufactures the same into ingots for the use of the coiner. Upon the receipt of bullion, the melter and refiner assorts the bars into the following classes: A ready to be made directly into ingots; B requiring to be toughened; and C requiring separation.

A. A melt is made by arithmetical calculation, from bars of the class A; some above, some below standard in title, so that the result of melting and mixing may produce ingots 900-1000ths fine. In case of silver, about 7,000 troy ounces, equal to 480 lbs. avoirdupois, are melted in a large cast-iron pot, or crucible, surrounded by a charcoal fire, in a wind, or draft furnace; and when the whole is in a state of fusion, the mass is diligently stirred, and then, by hand, laded out and poured into smooth iron moulds, making slim ingots about 16 inches long. Gold is in like manner melted and cast into ingots in black-lead pots, each holding about 1600 ounces, near 110 lbs. avoirdupois. The assayer next ascertains that the ingots cast are of the legal fineness required; if not, they are condemned, and have to be remelted.

B. Bullion, containing anything but gold, silver, and copper, usually requires to be toughened, an operation commonly performed in the mint by repeatedly casting nitre upon the surface of the melted metal, stirring it about, and then skimming it off, with the dross from the base metal contained.

C. The mint processes followed for the separation of alloyed gold and silver, are as follows: in the first place the mixed bullion, if required, is melted with additional silver, so that the alloy may contain about three times as much silver as gold; the melted metal is poured in a small stream from a height of a few feet into cold water, by which means it is obtained in a finely granulated condition; the granulated metal, placed in a glass mattress, supported upon a sand-bath, is boiled with nitric acid, which dissolves the silver, but leaves untouched the gold in the form of a dark power. The dissolved silver is poured into a tub of strong brine of common salt, by which it becomes converted into a white powder, the chloride of silver. After repeated washing, the chloride of silver is subjected to the joint action of metallic zink and hydrogen gas, by which means it becomes changed to pure, finely-divided, solid silver. After being washed and dried, it is

melted with nitre and borax, and cast into bars. The dark powder of gold is also carefully washed in hot water, dried, and in like manner cast into bars.

Consequent upon these operations, more or less gold and silver becomes mixed with ashes, dross, dirt, etc. All these matters are finely grounded and washed, smelted, etc., for the extraction of the precious metal. But there will still remain a valuable residue, for which reason the sweepings are ultimately treated like poor gold or silver ores, metallurgic operations, the performance of which have heretofore not been allowed in this mint. The sweepings are, in fact, sold abroad.

The gold and silver ingots, cut and trimmed, and their fineness or quality approved by the assayer, are next transferred by weight, through the treasurer's office to the coiner. In the coining department, they are repeatedly passed lengthwise between smooth and powerful iron rollers, being annealed from time to time in a large annealing furnace, until, by the compression, the metal assumes the form of long, thin strips, the thickness of which approximates to that of the coin to be manufactured. The annealed strips, covered with a thin coating of wax or tallow, are then taken to a Burton's drawing machine, where, being drawn between polished steel surfaces, on the principle of wire-drawing, the thickness is reduced exactly to the extent required. To attain this nice result, the steel surfaces are adjustable, and trial pieces are punched out and weighed. The drawing machine, as here arranged, is an admirable piece of mechanism. If the strip be drawn a fraction too thin, which seldom happens, it is condemned and returned through the treasurer's office, with all the residual clippings, to the melter and refiner, who consigns the whole to the melting pot.

The approved strips are next submitted to the action of a circular punch, which, at the rapid rate of one or two hundred per minute, cuts out the planchets or blank pieces of the required size for the coin intended. A most curious mechanical process is that next in order, raising milled edges upon the planchets. They are rolled with great velocity edgewise between approximating circular steel surfaces, so that raised edges are produced at a rate, depending upon the size of the pieces, from one to seven hundred per minute. All the form-changing operations are now completed, preparatory to the actual coinage.—Annealing and cleaning have next to be attended to. The planchets, with wax or tallow still adherent, are now heated to a dull redness, in iron recipients placed in the annealing furnace, and poured, hot as they are, into a tub of diluted sulphuric acid, by which means all impurities are removed from their surfaces, the alloyed copper superficially dissolved away, and the clear, beautiful, dead white appearance of pure unburnished silver is elicited. Adhering acid is washed away in water, and adhering water dried away by hot mahogany sawdust, in an ingenious rotating apparatus heated by steam, invented by the present coiner.

Coining.—The coining process consists essentially in compressing the prepared gold or silver blank, with very great force, between engraven dies of steel, of extreme hardness and high polish. The dies are prepared for this mint by impression from male dies at the mint in Philadelphia. The letter O, placed usually under the eagle, is intended to designate the coinage at New Orleans. In times of old very simple means were used in the process of stamping money, such as blows by a hammer, or compression by a plain, ordinary iron screw-press, the whole being performed by human labor. Coining in Mexico, South America, and many other parts of the world, is said to be still conducted according to the latter method; but here, as in England, France, and elsewhere, the machinery for rolling, drawing, punching out, milling and coining, is driven by steam, and the coining presses in use are models of the great excellence to which the mechanic arts have attained. There are four presses in the coining-room, forming a series, in respect to size and strength, adapted to the stamping of the various coins, from the half-dime to the dollar. The mechanical principle brought into play is the same as that in the ordinary printing-press—the genicular or elbow power, by which, with sustaining parts of sufficient strength, an almost incalculable degree of pressure may be commanded. Each operating press requires a man to watch it, to oil the joints occasionally, and to keep a vertical brass tube supplied with the blanks or planchets to be coined. The untiring press goes on, seizing with

iron fingers from the tube, a planchet of its own accord, carefully adjusting it to the retracted dies, squeezing it with a degree of force sublime to contemplate, and then quietly and safely depositing it in the box placed to receive it. From eighty to one hundred and fifty pieces, dependent upon the size, are thus coined in one minute's time. The obverse, reverse, and indented work upon the edge, are all completed at a single effort of the press. Travel the world over, and you can scarcely meet with a more admirable piece of massive mechanism than the new press in the New Orleans mint, for the coinage of dollars.

Though stamped and perfectly finished, gold or silver does not legally become money until the coiner has formally delivered it, by counting and weighing, over to the treasurer. It must be seen that the pieces possess the weight required by law. If any prove too light upon trial, a circumstance that rarely happens, such are defaced and condemned to be remelted.

All nations that aim to preserve what is called public faith, are religiously scrupulous to maintain, as far as practicable, the weight and quality of their national coins, in correspondence with the legal standards which they fix upon. Acting with this view, our government has established an annual trial before special commissioners, to test and verify the standard value of the coins of the preceding year. This trial is held at the parent mint, in Philadelphia. Subservient thereto, is the assayer's duty to select assay coins indiscriminately from every parcel delivered by the coiner to the treasurer. The coins by him selected are properly labelled and formally placed in a tin box, secured by two locks, the key to one of which is kept by the assayer, the key to the other by the treasurer. The contents of this box are transmitted by the superintendent, through the Secretary of the Treasury, to the director of the mint at Philadelphia, for the annual trial. The coinage of this mint has thus far been approved, but it is worthy of remark that the average fineness of the gold coins issued is a trifle better than the mean standard contemplated by law—the average value of a New Orleans eagle being about three-fourths of a cent greater than similar coins from the mints at Charlotte, Dahlonega or Philadelphia*

# MERCANTILE LAW CASES.

## LIBEL FOR WAGES.

IN DISTRICT COURT OF THE UNITED STATES, MAINE DISTRICT, NOVEMBER 4TH, 1845—WILLIAM SMITH, LIBELLANT, *vs.* HIRAM TREAT.

THE arrest and imprisonment of a seaman in a foreign port, and the sending him home by a public authority as a prisoner charged with an indictable offence, does not necessarily constitute a bar to a claim for wages for the voyage. Such proceedings do not preclude the Court from inquiring into the merits of the case, and making such a decree as the justice of the case requires.

The master is not ordinarily justified in dissolving the contract of a seaman, and discharging him for a single fault, unless it is of a high and aggravated character.

The causes for which a seaman may be discharged are ordinarily such as amount to a disqualification, and show him to be an unsafe and unfit man to have on board the vessel.

The libellant shipped as a seaman, April 25, 1845, on board the brig Benjamin, at Frankfort, for a voyage to some port in the West Indies and back, for wages at the rate of $15 per month. The brig returned August 17th, and the libellant claimed wages for the whole time; the balance due being $42 50, one month's wages having been advanced at the time of shipping.

D. L. SWEAT for the libellant: A. HAINES for the respondent.

The facts are stated in the opinion of the Court.

WARE, District Judge. The libellant in this case went and returned in the brig, and it is not denied that full wages are due to the termination of the voyage, unless they were lost or forfeited by what took place at Point Petre, the port of discharge. The affair which is relied on as a forfeiture, or more properly as a bar

* New Orleans Picayune, November 8th, 1845.

to the claim for wages, took place on the 21st of May, while the crew were discharging the cargo. The captain being at that time on shore, the men, under the orders of the mate, were making up a raft of lumber to be floated on shore, when a difficulty arose between Tappan the mate, and Hadley one of the crew. While the mate was below making up his account of lumber discharged, he heard a noise on deck, and came up to put a stop to it. He found it was made by Hadley, who was on deck, passing off lumber, to make up the raft, Smith, the libellant, being at work with him. He ordered Hadley to stop his noise, or go below. Hadley, who had been drinking pretty freely, but not so as to render him incapable of work, replied that he would not go below for him nor for any other man. Tappan rejoined, that if he continued his noise he would put him below, and Hadley again replied, that neither he nor any other man could put him below. Tappan then called to the second mate, who was on the raft, to come on deck, and assist in putting Hadley below, whose noise then had attracted the attention of persons near the vessel. Smith, who was at work with Hadley, and to whom nothing had been said, then interposed, and said to the mate, "if you put one below you must put all hands below." The difficuly, however, subsided without any act of violence, and the men returned to their work, and continued quiet for an hour, or an hour and a half, when Hadley again became noisy. It is not easy, from the varying accounts of the witnesses, to determine the precise facts which took place after this time, or the exact order in which those occurred, in which the accounts of all the witnesses agree. The noise appears to have commenced between Hadley and Smith, who were at work together; Tappan, the mate, interposed to stop it, and an affray took place. Tappan knocked down Hadley with his fist; Smith interfered and gave a blow to Tappan, and they clenched. While they were clenched Hadley got up, and some of the witnesses say that he stood by and looked on, without taking a part. But Harrison, the second mate, who at this time came on deck, says, that both Smith and Hadley were upon the mate, and had got him upon a barrel; that, as he was going to his relief, Hadley left Tappan and came towards him; that he avoided and passed him, and that he, Hadley, followed him as much as twenty-five feet, towards the pump; that he then took a pump-brake, and that Hadley then struck him with his fist, and he then gave him a blow on the head with the pump-brake, which brought him partly down, and then another that brought him to the deck; that he then went to Tappan, whom Smith had down and was beating. He told Smith to let Tappan alone, but he refused and told Harrison not to strike him. Harrison then gave him three blows with the pump-brake, before he brought him down, and then turned to Hadley, who had got up and fallen over the deck into the water. He then went on to the raft, and got Hadley out of the water, and when he came on deck, Tappan and Smith were again clinched. At this moment, the captain came on board, and put an end to the affray. The blows given to Hadley proved mortal, and he died the following night. Smith was arrested that night and confined in prison, and sent home in irons by order of the American Consul. He was indicted at the adjourned term of the Circuit Court, on a charge of stirring up the crew to resist the officers of the vessel, and was acquitted of the charge by the jury.

Such are the most material facts, as nearly as I can recollect them from the testimony, which, though not in all respects quite contradictory, is not, in all its parts, exactly reconcilable. One month's wages, covering the whole period of his service, previous to his arrest and imprisonment, had been paid in advance, and the libellant now claims wages to the termination of the voyage. For the respondent, it is contended that the misconduct of Smith, followed by his arrest and imprisonment, and his being sent home by the public authority in chains as a criminal, is a conclusive bar to any claim for wages beyond what have been paid.

This court, I hold, is not excluded by any of the proceedings at Point Petre, from inquiring into the merits of the case, and making such a decree as, on the whole, right and justice may require. The libellant was tried and acquitted on the criminal charge, and even if he had been convicted, this would not have been a bar to the present suit.* His claim stands entirely unprejudiced by any of the

* Mason's Reports, 84: The Mentor.

proceedings at Point Petre, and his misconduct, admitting it in all the aggravation that is alleged, cannot operate properly as a forfeiture of the wages now claimed. The wages forfeited under the marine law are properly the wages previously earned, and not those which are or may be earned subsequently. Both justice and policy require this limitation of the forfeiture. If it extended to future earnings for the remainder of the voyage, it would take from the seamen, all the ordinary and most influential motives for good conduct. He would never willingly and cheerfully perform his duties, if he knew beforehand that, however diligent and faithful he might be, he could receive no compensation for his services.

But a seaman may, by misconduct, not only forfeit all wages antecedently earned, but his misconduct may be such as will authorise the master to dissolve the contract, and discharge him from the vessel. The principal question presented in this case is, whether the conduct of the seaman was such as would, by the principles of the maritime law, authorise the master to discharge him from the vessel. By the old sea-laws, which are the records of the early customs and usages of the sea, the master is authorised to discharge a seaman for drunkenness, for quarrelling and fighting with the other men, for theft, for going on shore without leave, and for disobedience.* Some of these laws are curiously minute and particular on this as well as on other subjects. The consulate of the sea authorises the master to dismiss a seamen for three causes: for theft, quarrelling and disobedience to the orders of the master, and subjoins, by way of amendment, perjury as a fourth cause, but adds, that he shall not be discharged for the first, but only for the fifth offence. Generally speaking the causes which justify the master in discharging a seaman before the termination of the voyage, and especially in a foreign port, are such as amount to a disqualification, and show him to be unfit for the service he has engaged for, or unfit to be trusted in the vessel. They are mutinous and rebellious conduct, persevered in, gross dishonesty, or embezzlement, or theft, or habitual drunkenness, or where the seaman is habitually a stirrer up of quarrels, to the destruction of the order of the vessel, and the discipline of the crew.†

Ordinarily the law will not justify the master in dismissing a seaman for a single offence, unless it be of a very high and aggravated character, implying a deep degree of moral turpitude, or a dangerous and ungovernable temper or disposition. It looks on occasional offences and outbreaks of passion, not so frequent as to become habits with indulgence, and by maritime courts it is administered with lenity, and a due regard to the character and habits of the subjects to whom it applies. They are a race of men proverbially enterprising and brave, exposed, by the nature of their employment, to great personal dangers and hardships, contending with the elements in their most violent and tempestuous agitations, and encountering these dangers and hardships with the most persevering courage. But with all this, they are of a temperament hasty and choleric, quick to take offence, and ready, on the excitement of the moment, to avenge any supposed wrong or indignity. The law looks on the fairer traits of their character with kindness, and as making some compensation for defects and faults, which are, perhaps, not unnaturally, or, at least, are very frequently associated with those qualities which render them so valuable to their country in peace as well as in war. And when these show themselves but occasionally and are not habitual, it will not visit them with severity, but imposes its penalties with a sparing hand. From considerations of this kind the court will seldom punish a single offence with a forfeiture of all the wages antecedently earned, much less will it be held as a justification of a discharge of a seaman from the vessel.

But still there are causes which will justify the master in dismissing a seaman and putting an end to the contract. Was this such a case? The conduct of the libellant up to the time when this affray took place had been, if not entirely un-

* Jugemens D'Orleron, Art. 6–13. Consulat de la Mer, Ch. 125. Laws of Wisbuy, 18, Edit of Cleirac. Laws of the Hanse Towns, 29–45.

† 1 Peter's Adm. Rep. 175, 168. 2 Peter's Rep. 262. Bee's Rep. 148, 184. 4 Mason's Rep. 42: The Lady Campbell. Ib. 222: The Vibilia.

exceptionable, such as had not exposed him to any special censure. But on this occasion, though in the judgment of a jury, the part which he took did not amount to the offence charged in the indictment, it was highly censurable and approximating to mutiny. Hadley, under the excitement of liquor, had been turbulent and noisy, so much so as to attract the attention of persons in the vicinity of the vessel. Both the mates, the master being on shore, had before, by gentle means attempted, and for the time succeeded in quieting him. Tappan told him if he continued his noise he would put him below. This was certainly no harsh punishment, but a very proper act of discipline unless quiet and order were restored. The answer of Hadley was insolent, but no notice was taken of that, nor was there any attempt by the mate to put the threat into execution. It is apparent he was satisfied with putting a stop to the noise. But Smith immediately interposed, and, in a tone of defiance, told the mate if he put one man below he must put all below. Such language and conduct, under the circumstances of the case, if not amounting to that technical offence of stirring up the crew to resist the orders of the officers, was clearly of a mutinous tendency, and subversive of the discipline of the ship's company. Hadley became quiet, and the difficulty subsided. But he soon again resumed his noise, and the disorder at this time arose from difficulty between him and Smith. The mate again interposed to stop the noise. It is not easy from the imperfect and somewhat conflicting accounts given by the witnesses, to determine how the quarrel now commenced. What is certain is, that Smith interposed on the part of Hadley; a scuffle ensued and blows were given on both sides; Smith and Hadley both being against the mate, they got him down and held him down until he was partially relieved by the second mate's coming to his aid. Even after Hadley was disabled by the blow, which unfortunately put an end to his life, Smith fiercely continued his assault on Tappan, the mate, nor did he relinquish his grasp though Harriman repeatedly struck him with a heavy pump-brake, but persevered until the master came on board and put an end to the fight. It is in proof that Tappan was severely beaten and bruised by Smith, or by Smith and Hadley together. Through the whole affair, until it came to blows, the conduct of the officers was moderate and forbearing. There was nothing particularly irritating, and certainly nothing that excused the intemperate violence and mutinous conduct of Smith. From the beginning to the end he was a volunteer in the quarrel, and it is difficult to account for the part he acted but by supposing it to flow from a radically quarrelsome disposition. It was commenced without cause, and continued with a persevering malignity not often witnessed; and, in fact, the melancholy tragedy in which the affair ended, may be distinctly traced to the insubordination and violence of Smith as its first cause.

Whether, but for the tragic end of this affair, the master would have thought it necessary, or would have been justified in discharging the libellant and putting an end to the contract, is a question on which perhaps one might pause. Smith had on no other occasion exhibited a temper of dangerous insubordination, and it might have been safe for the master to have retained him on board, and to have left this matter to be settled at the termination of the voyage. As it was, certainly it was the duty of the master to call on the civil authority of the place, and put the affair in a train of judicial examination. The result of that inquiry was, that Smith was sent home as a prisoner to answer for his conduct to the laws of his country. And from the facts developed on the trial here, it appears to me that the civil authorities were perfectly justified in this course. The consequence was that the libellant was disabled from performing the service for which he was engaged, and from the whole facts in proof in the case, he may justly be considered as having disabled himself by his own voluntary act. On the principles of natural justice and universal law he cannot claim a compensation for services, which he has by his own fault disabled himself from performing. The libel must therefore be dismissed.

[As a part of the history of this transaction, it may be added, that Harriman, the second mate, was indicted (in the Circuit Court) for an assault with a dangerous weapon, which resulted in the death of Hadley. Under the statutes of the United States, manslaughter would not lie, since the death occurred on shore,

whither Hadley was removed after the fatal blow, and without the jurisdiction of the United States. On a verdict of guilty, the Circuit Court, in consideration of the circumstances of the case, sentenced Harrison to a brief imprisonment—the penalty for the offence laid, being in fact, under the statute, the same as that for manslaughter.]

BANKRUPTCY—COPARTNERSHIP, ETC.

Opinion of the Hon. P. V. Daniel, delivered May 19th, 1845, in the U. S. Circuit Court for the Southern District of Mississippi, on the petition and appeal of S. W. Oakley; in the matter of F. Stanton, a bankrupt.

*Statement.*—There were three firms, each composed of the same three partners —Buckner, Stanton & Co., of New Orleans, of which Henry S. Buckner was the resident partner; Stanton, Buckner & Co., at Natchez, of which Frederick Stanton was the resident partner, and M. B. Hamer & Co., at Manchester, of which M. B. Hamer was the resident partner. In the course of many years of operation, the Mississippi firms fell in arrear to the New Orleans house, large balances respectively, which were struck on the books of the latter firm prior to the bankruptcy of Buckner, or of F. Stanton, or the death of Hamer. Buckner's bankruptcy was conducted in Louisiana—the balances due the New Orleans house were reported as assets of that firm, and were sold by the assignee there, for the satisfaction of the creditors of that firm, and Oakley purchased. The claims thus originating were presented as entitled to *pro rata* distribution, out of the products of the Mississippi firms, raised on Stanton's bankruptcy here. The main question was whether the claims were provable.

On consideration of the claim presented by this petition, I can perceive no valid objection to it arising either from generality, indefinitiveness or uncertainty in its character; or from defectiveness in the proofs on which it is rested. The claim is founded upon accounts current between the bankrupt and his creditor, and upon a comparison between those accounts current and the correspondence and books of the bankrupt, by the agent of the latter, who kept those books.

Accounts current have always been regarded as evidences between merchants, and as admitted proofs of the amounts they purport, upon their face, if not objected to within the usual lapse of mercantile correspondence. They are deemed in law a proper foundation on which to sustain the action of *indebitatus assumpsit*, and it has been settled that claims upon which *indebitatus assumpsit* will lie, are provable in bankruptcy. It seems to me, therefore, that the claim in question for anything connected with its form, was provable under the bankruptcy, and I might add, if necessary, that it appears to me to have been sufficiently established by proof.

Let us now inquire whether there be anything relative to the nature of this claim, as being in reality a separate and individual or a social demand; or any consequence deducible from the identity of the individuals constituting these several firms which should lead to its rejection. Without instituting a comparison between the rule approved by Lord Hardwicke, and that adopted by Lord Thurlow and the latter decisions, we will take the modern rule in its most ample and unqualified extent; viz: that social creditors must be satisfied to the entire exhaustion of the social effects, and that the individual partner who may have advanced to the firm his separate and private means to any amount, cannot prove against the firm in opposition to the social creditors. This is putting the principle as broadly as any person can desire. Still it may be asked whether, even within this wide scope, the case before us be comprised? Is this the case of an individual partner attempting to prove his separate claim against the social effects, and in opposition to the social creditors? It is true, according to the proof adduced, there existed three firms, which were all composed of the same individuals. But although this natural identity as to the component members of these firms existed, still each was a distinct and separate mercantile body; and, as to its separate, corporate transactions, which it had an unquestionable power to conduct, and as to its separate and peculiar creditors, each was as distinct and entire as if no other whatever existed. The social creditors of each of those separate bodies

had the right to claim whatever was due to it as a firm—had a right to claim first, and if necessary, to the full extent of its rights and effects. They had a right to claim whatever was due to this firm, as a firm, from any other person or persons, natural or artificial. It matters not whether such artificial body or firm was or was not composed of the same persons, or of others; the debts due to the firm, as such, and all its property and credits, as a firm, belonged to its creditors, under the bankruptcy. This seems to be the natural and inevitable conclusion laid down by Lord Thurlow; and, to say that the individual identity of the persons composing the separate firms should have any effect, would amount to a total overthrow of that principle, and would be allowing the individual and not the social character of the party to give the rule. In the case before us, the New Orleans house is declared bankrupt; before the commissioner, its social claim against the Mississippi house is exhibited and proved; by order of the court, sitting in bankruptcy, it is ordered to be sold for the benefit of the social creditors of the New Orleans house, and the proceeds of the sale applied for the benefit of those creditors. Can there exist any reason why the transferee of this claim should not be permitted to prove it, in the same manner and to the samn effect, which the creditor of the New Orleans firm or the assignee of that firm might have done? To my mind, no such reason is apparent.

It is in legal effect, a claim by the assignee of the bankrupt firm of New Orleans, in behalf of the creditors of that firm against the bankrupt firm of Mississippi, and should be allowed against the latter, *pro rata*, with other claims against them.

The converse of this proceeding would be an appropriation to the creditors of the Mississippi firm of that which did not belong to it, or to its creditors; but which belonged rightly to the creditors of the New Orleans firm; for, with respect to those several firms, their respective creditors who dealt with them, and them alone, must attach upon those firms, respectively, and be regarded a *priori*, as if they were solitary and unconnected with any other houses.

ACTION OF ASSUMPSIT—LETTERS OF CREDIT—BILLS OF EXCHANGE.

In the Supreme Judicial Court of Massachusetts, before Judge Hubbard. John C. Green and others *v.* Nathaniel Goddard.

This was an action of assumpsit, brought by the plaintiffs, who were merchants at Canton in China, trading under the firm of Russell & Co., against the defendant, who was a merchant of Boston. The most important facts were briefly these, although a large amount of details and documentary evidences was put into the case. In March, 1836, Goddard purchased of Mr. Hooper, the agent in Boston, of Timothy Wiggin & Co. bankers in London, two letters of credit, to be used in Canton, one authorising Russell & Co. to draw the bills on Wiggin & Co. to the extent of £4000 sterling for the account of Goddard; and the other authorising Russel & Co. to draw in the same manner for £2000; which bills the agent agreed should be duly honored by Wiggin & Co., if drawn within 12 months from the date of the letters. Goddard at the same time made an agreement with Wiggin & Co., that he would provide funds in London to meet the payment of all his bills drawn under those letters of credit.

The letters of credit were transmitted by Goddard to Russell & Co. at Canton, with instructions to purchase for him certain goods with the bills that should be drawn in pursuance of them; for which transactions Russell & Co. were to receive a commission. Russell & Co. drew bills accordingly, negotiated them, purchased goods with the proceeds, and forwarded the goods to Goddard. The bills were duly presented to Wiggin & Co. and accepted by them, but, before they came due, Wiggin & Co. suspended payment. Baring Brothers & Co., who were correspondents of Russell & Co. protected the bills for the honor of the drawers, and paid them as they became due. They wrote to Russell & Co. informing them what they had done. They also wrote to John M. Forbes, one of the firm of Russell & Co., who was then in Boston, to the same effect. Baring Brothers & Co. held goods belonging to Russell & Co., and on which Russell & Co. were entitled to receive advances. Baring Brothers & Co. wrote to Forbes

that they should withhold those advances, to secure them from taking up the bills drawn by Russell & Co. Mr. Forbes gave notice to Mr. Goddard before the bills fell due, and the latter said that he would provide means to pay them as they matured. But he neglected to do so. In the mean time, Forbes procured funds, and remitted the same to London, at a premium of 21 per cent; and by that means, and by certain transfers of property on the books of Baring Brothers & Co., provided for the bills which first became due. He gave notice of these transactions to Mr. Goddard, and requested a reimbursement. Goddard replied, that he was making arrangements in London to take up all the bills, with commissions, interest, and expenses of protest, but said nothing in relation to the claim for advanced premium. He afterwards made arrangements with Wiggin & Co., in consequence of which Wiggin & Co, paid the whole amount of the bills, with the interest and expenses, and the usual banker's commission; and the bills were given up to Wiggin & Co. by Baring Brothers & Co., without any claim made by the latter for the damages sustained by Russell & Co.

Russell & Co. in the present suit, claimed of Goddard to be indemnified for the advanced premium which they had been obliged to pay, in consequence of Goddard's neglect to provide for the bills as they became due, and for the loss which they sustained by the detention of the advances which they were to have received from Baring Brothers & Co., on the goods in the hands of the latter. The case was by consent withdrawn from the jury and submitted to the Court, who were to draw such inferences of the fact as a jury would be authorised to do. If the law would warrant a recovery by the plaintiffs, and the evidence should be sufficient as to damages, the case was to be referred to an assessor, to ascertain the amount, on such principles as the Court should direct, and judgment was to be entered for the plaintiffs accordingly; but if otherwise, verdict and judgment were to be entered for the defendant.

Hubbard J. delivered the opinion of the Court. As the defendant's name does not appear on the bills of exchange drawn by the plaintiffs upon T. Wiggin & Co., he cannot be liable for any damages arising to the plaintiffs in consequence of the none-payment of the bills by the acceptors, unless upon some agreement existing between him and the plaintiffs. The first point, is then to ascertain the relation which existed between the plaintiffs and defendant in regard to these transactions; whether the plaintiffs were merchants, acting on their own account, or whether they were agents of the defendant, and transacting business on his account. The acts of Russel & Co., in drawing and negotiating the bills, and purchasing the goods, were done in pursuance of the instructions of Goddard, contained in his letter to them which enclosed the letters of credit, and they thereby became his agents in these transactions. Nor did their agency cease with the purchase of the goods. The bills could not have been drawn by Goddard, under the letter of credit, and could only be drawn by Russell & Co. They, by drawing them, became responsible to those who might hold the bills, in case the drawees should fail to accept them, or to pay them at maturity. They were not obliged to look alone to Wiggin & Co. to indemnify them against such responsibility, but had also a right to look to Goddard their principal. Where an agent incurs a personal liability by his fidelity to his principal, and such liability becomes necessary in consequence of the instructions of the principal, who is well acquainted beforehand that such liability must be incurred by the agent, the agent is entitled to be indemnified by the principal for any loss which he may suffer thereon. The surrender of the bills by Baring Brothers & Co. did not amount to a waivre of the plaintiffs' claim for damages, because their claim was not founded upon the bills themselves, and upon their production at the trial as evidence of their claim; but upon their relation as agents of Goddard in these transactions. Nor is the right of the plaintiffs to an indemnity limited to the amount of damages which they would have been bound to pay, if the bills had been returned to Canton dishonored. They had a right to take the necessary precautions to save their credit from suffering a damage from the disorder of their bills.

The next question is, what damage have the plaintiffs sustained? It appeared

that at the time of the stoppage of Wiggin & Co., the plaintiffs had a large quantity of bills outstanding which required protection, besides the bills drawn by them for the defendant; and that under an agreement with Baring Brothers & Co., Forbes made remittances, at the same time and afterwards, at the high rate of premium then existing between the United States and England, without any special appropriation to particular bills. The Court were of opinion, that the amount of losses arising from the high rate of exchange, up to the time when the last payment was made by Baring Brothers & Co. on account of the Goddard bills, should be apportioned upon all the bills paid for Russell & Co. up to that time; and that the amount should be ascertained by the assessor. Upon the amount thus ascertained, the plaintiffs will be entitled to interest.

In regard to the claim for losses alleged by the plaintiffs to have been suffered by them in consequence of the withholding advances, by Baring Brothers & Co. on the goods consigned, they having retained them as security for their reimbursement, the Court were of opinion that they could not be sustained. They cannot claim a compensation for the loss of incidental benefits which they might have derived from the use of their money. They might have realised great benefits from the use of it, and on the other hand, they might have incurred ruinous losses.

The cause will be sent to an assessor, in accordance with the agreement of the parties, to ascertain the amount of the claim for the premiums of exchange, on the moneys which the plaintiffs were compelled to advance for the defendant, in consequence of his neglect to provide for the bills as they came to maturity.

## COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE AND REVIEW.

STATE OF THE COMMERCIAL WORLD—EFFECTS OF SHORT CROPS IN EUROPE ON THE MARKETS AND CONSUMPTION—EVILS OF UNSTABLE LEGISLATION—THE PROPOSED REDUCTION OF THE TARIFF—THE SUB-TREASURY AND THE CURRENCY—LEADING FEATURES OF 192 BANKS OF THE UNITED STATES—ARRIVAL OF FLOUR AT TIDE-WATER, AND VALUE IN NEW YORK, FROM APRIL TO NOVEMBER—FLOUR AND WHEAT ARRIVED AT TIDE-WATER, PER ERIE CANAL, FROM 1839 TO 1845—CIRCULATION OF FREE AND CHARTERED BANKS OF NEW YORK STATE—IMPORT OF GOODS INTO UNITED STATES UNDER THE OPERATION OF DIFFERENT TARIFFS—EXPORTS FOR LAST SIX YEARS—EFFECTS OF TARIFF AND CURRENCY ON TRADE—EXTENT OF THE SPECIE BASIS.

The state of the commercial world presents an aggravation of all those features on which we touched at the date of our last number as growing out of the bad quality and quantity of the crops of Great Britain. A great deal of the panic which prevailed on this subject was, doubtless, the effect of political agitation; but, nevertheless, the wants of England will be large, and the sales on the part of the United States very considerable; yet, as we indicated in our last number, the prices of flour in New York have not been maintained at the highest points they reached under the excitement of the news. We somewhat elaborately in our last number entered into the causes, which, in our judgment, would modify the effect of the deficient harvest, in diminishing the consumption of cotton. The views we then held, are somewhat justified by a fall in breadstuffs. The whole of the commercial world, up to the harvest just ended in England, was in a high state of prosperity, and a daily improvement in the consumption of goods, the employments of the people, and the wages of industry, were accompanied by a more active employment for capital, and high profits to the owners. A deficiency in the English harvest is the sole interruption to that favorable state of affairs, and that deficiency is greatly exaggerated for political objects. That the crops of potatoes in Ireland are short, is true. It is also true that some 4,000,000 of souls will encounter great distress, but they are not of a class who have heretofore consumed many goods, and therefore a diminished consumption through their present distress cannot take

place. The remedies most likely to be applied by the government, are to admit coarse grains free of duty into Ireland, and as this measure of itself would afford but little relief to those not possessed with means wherewith to buy, it must be accompanied by large disbursements in employment of the people. This will probably be done in the construction of public works in the most distressed sections, which are precisely those which are in most need of the works; because, the distress is the consequence of the want of suitable communications with the markets. Out of present evils, will therefore arise much future good. It does not appear that the government will venture on the expedient of throwing open the ports of England free to the import of grain. The head of the government is no doubt anxious to modify the corn laws so far as by increasing the import to enhance the revenues derivable from grain; but the oligarchy, headed by a superannuated military man, are not yet prepared for such a concession to the people. Apart from this circumstance of the crops, the whole state of affairs is eminently prosperous. Money has indeed been advanced to 3½ per cent per annum by the bank, but exchanges being in all quarters in favor of England, the money circulates in England, and is actively employed. But the disposition to loan may have been greatly checked by the panic in relation to the corn laws, and will be corrected as that panic subsides. The consumption of goods and raw produce is very large, and the masses are well employed at comparatively good wages. All these are indications of continued health, which point to a progressive large demand for American produce. It is to be observed that as the foreign markets for English goods continue healthy, and money is still cheap in the manufacturing districts, there is but little apprehension of those large exports of goods to the United States, for the purpose of realizing money, which formerly marked a period of distress. It is further to be observed that the great railway speculations, which had produced such alarm, have greatly subsided, and appear to be more imaginary than real. The state of commercial affairs, as far as the condition of the foreign markets is concerned, is eminently healthy; and, therefore, there is every prospect of an extensive and remunerative market for the products of this country. We are, however, about to experience the evils of unstable legislation. The reaction of the tariff of 1842 is now to be experienced, and the message of the President, as well as of the report of the Secretary, advise the reduction of the present tariff to a maximum rate of 20 per cent, with discriminations for revenue purposes only below that rate. It is also recommended to preserve the cash duties, and to establish a uniform system of warehousing. The importance of this latter regulation to the commerce of this country, we have fully discussed in a former number. Under the cash system, without warehousing privilege, the large carrying trade that formerly existed between the United States and the countries of South America, has nearly perished, and with it a large export of domestic goods to make up assorted cargoes has been lost. The establishment of a uniform and extensive system of warehouses, would eminently tend to provide at all times a plentiful supply of foreign goods, on which the duty would be payable only when needed for consumption. The importer of small capital would thus be freed from the burden of the payment of large cash duties, and the outlay of a cash capital thus advanced to the government. A large assortment of foreign goods, at all times on hand, to make up assorted cargoes, without the ceremony and loss attending drawbacks, will be of vast service in extending our foreign trade, and the export of domestic produce and manufactured goods. In the mean time, the probable reduction of the tariff has a depressing effect upon the import trade, more especially in that the proposed abolition of the minimums and specific duties will make an immense change in the ad valorem rate of many chief articles of import, and consequently, the disposition to import more than is required for immediate wants is diminished.

The reduction of the tariff, as far as its influence upon the amount of imports is affected, will be counteracted to a very considerable extent, through the influence of the proposed

re-establishment of the sub-treasury plan of finance for the federal government. It is probable that the re-enactment of that law now, will, for a long series of years settle the vexed question of finances, and ensure, by its constant and universal action at least a currency very near a specie level. The sub-treasury law of the United States was passed and approved July 4, 1840. The presidential election took place and changed the character of the government, involving a repeal of the law August 13, 1841. It was consequently in operation one year and one month, and repealed without any substitute having been provided. The funds of the government have since been kept in various banks, subject to the order of the secretary of the treasury, who could change no depository without rendering a sufficient reason. The security given by the banks, has been mostly United States stock, or that of the states. This, under any circumstances, could be but a temporary arrangement. The money of the government thus reposing in bank vaults, without interest, has been the basis of extended loans, and has agitated the market to a considerable extent. The funds of the government being constantly liable to be removed, could with safety to the banks be employed only on stock loans subject to call. This was attended with all the inconveniences of growing speculation, and inflated prices whenever the revenues were large, and of panic and sudden fall whenever the wants of the government required the withdrawal of loans so made. The stock market being usually looked to as a kind of barometer of the financial atmosphere, served, under such artificial fluctuations, only to disturb the general quiet, and produce unfounded alarm, to the great injury of general business. The proposed operation of the sub-treasury plan of finance with the specie clause, is now productive of some disquiet among those who have been in the habit of ascribing all the revulsions of past years growing out of the explosions of overwrought credits, to the operation of specie "circulars" and clauses. There is doubtless some ground for uneasiness, not however, arising from what exists, but from what may be the case by the time that the specie clause of the sub-treasury, (if that law should be re-enacted,) would come into operation. We may first recount the leading features of the law as passed July, 1840: It provides that new fire proof vaults be constructed in the new treasury building at Washington; these are to constitute the treasury of the United States. The mint at New Orleans and the mint at Philadelphia to be places of deposit. Also there shall be vaults for depositing money under the charge of receivers-general in the custom-houses of New York and Boston, and similar places to be erected at Charleston, S. C., and St. Louis, Mo.; also under the direction of receivers-general, who shall be nominated by the president, with the advice and consent of the senate, and hold office four years. These officers are to keep the money safely, without loaning or using, until they receive orders from the department to pay out or transfer; and all collectors and receivers shall pay over to the receiver, in their several districts, all the money in their possession once a week. The salaries of the receivers be as follows:

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Salary of receiver-general at | New York, | $4,000 |
| " " | Boston, | 2,500 |
| " " | Charleston, | 2,500 |
| " " | St. Louis, | 2,500 |
| " treasurer of the mint, | Philadelphia, additional, | 500 |
| " " | New Orleans, | 1,000 |
| Total salaries of sub-treasury officers, | | $13,000 |

The Secretary of the Treasury may transfer the money from one depository to another, or to the United States treasury, at his direction. The money in the hands of any depository, shall, at all times, be subject to his draft, whether for transfer or disbursement. The public dues were to be collected as follows:

After 30th June, 1840, ¼ in specie, ¾ in notes of specie-paying banks.
" " 1841, ½ " ½ " " "
" " 1842, ¾ " ¼ " " "
" " 1843, the whole to be paid in specie.

The 23d section provides as follows:

"That it shall be the duty of the Secretary of the Treasury to issue and publish regulations to enforce the speedy presentation of all the government drafts for payment at the place where payable, and to prescribe the time, according to the different distances of the depositories from the seat of government, within which all drafts upon them respectively, shall be presented for payment; and in default of such presentation, to direct any other mode and place of payment which he may deem proper. But in all those regulations and directions, it shall be the duty of the Secretary of the Treasury to guard, as far as may be, against those drafts being used, or thrown into circulation as a paper currency or medium of exchange."

These were the main features, and the bill was repealed before its provisions in relation to specie came fully into operation, or that the sub-treasury vaults had been prepared for its service. It will be observed that the operation of the specie clause was made gradual in order to accustom the banks and the public to its effects. This part of the law, however, never went into operation, because the money was actually left in bank vaults, for want of the treasury vaults, and the law was repealed before the perfection of the machinery. It is now apprehended that the operation of that clause may produce a dearness of money, and involve a great fall in prices and values. This apprehension admits an inflation of prices now based upon the volume of the paper currency, a state of things which we do not think exists, inasmuch as that the banks' issues have been very limited until the past year, during which, they have, it is true, greatly swollen, but have not yet influenced a speculative rise in prices dependant upon the continuance of that inflation. We will take the following table of the returns of 192 banks, to November, 1845, as compared with November, 1844:

LEADING FEATURES OF 192 BANKS OF THE UNITED STATES.

| | 1844. | | 1845. | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Loans. | Specie. | Loans. | Specie. |
| New York, | $73,091,796 | $8,968,092 | $74,789,435 | $8,884,545 |
| Philadelphia, | 14,603,334 | 3,540,645 | 16,965,593 | 3,704,546 |
| Virginia, | 12,623,508 | 2,126,497 | 13,957,411 | 2,016,244 |
| Georgia, | 2,455,106 | 807,939 | 0,758,743 | 785,659 |
| South Carolina, | 5,831,508 | 1,032,728 | 6,364,479 | 871,514 |
| New Orleans, | 2,665,514 | 8,316,880 | 4,822,232 | 6,162,080 |
| Maine, | 4,92,763 | 198,999 | 5,014,200 | 205,588 |
| | $115,763,529 | $24,991,760 | $124,663,093 | $22,629,976 |
| | Circulation. | Deposits. | Circulation. | Deposits. |
| New York, | $20,152,219 | $30,391,622 | $21,625,239 | $31,773,991 |
| Philadelphia, | 3,762,163 | 7,549,687 | 4,204,414 | 10,300,196 |
| Virginia, | 5,555,924 | 2,800,008 | 5,590,645 | 3,004,600 |
| Georgia, | 1,509,901 | 554,243 | 1,528,088 | 577,672 |
| South Carolina, | 1,936,879 | 1,459,095 | 2,264,582 | 1,767,117 |
| New Orleans, | 1,892,997 | 6,088,777 | 2,556,895 | 6,223,910 |
| Maine, | 1,846,815 | 1,254,910 | 2,226,380 | 1,304,400 |
| | $36,651,089 | $50,098,347 | $39,986,242 | $54,951,886 |

The aggregate amounts compare as follow:—

| | 1844. | 1845. | Increase. | Decrease. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Loans, | $115,763,529 | $124,663,093 | $8,899,564 | |
| Specie, | 24,991,760 | 22,629,976 | | $2,361,784 |
| Circulation, | 36,651,989 | 39,986,243 | 3 335,153 | |
| Deposits, | 50,098,347 | 54,951,886 | 4,853,539 | |

The expansion here is considerable and general, but it is observable that the specie on hand, to the gross circulation, is but as 1 to 1¾, and is scarcely more than 1 to 1¼ net; that is, deducting notes on hand; consequently, if all the notes were called in, and the specie paid out, the change in the volume of the circulation, as affected by these banks,

would be now small. The expansion is, however, in very rapid progression. In Ohio, particularly, 21 new banks are in operation under the law passed at the last session, and several more are in progress of organization. The issues of these banks will have a powerful effect upon the state of business, and the level of prices. It is very evident, therefore, that when that inflation has taken place, that the operation of the specie clause will produce a revulsion. The increase of the circulation of the New York banks has been caused rather by the rise of produce, consequent upon the foreign demand, than that it has caused that advance; but it has, no doubt, materially assisted the high price of flour, and has prevented exportation, involving a subsequent fall in price. The progress of the circulation has been as follows:—

NEW YORK STATE CIRCULATION.

| | 1844. | | 1845. | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | August. | November. | August. | November. |
| Free Country,..... | $3,006,496 | $3,842,121 | $3,638,259 | $4,174,542 |
| Chartered " ..... | 9,148,491 | 10,078,826 | 8,682,301 | 11,031,683 |
| Total Country, ..... | $12,154,988 | $13,920,947 | $12,320,560 | $15,206,225 |
| Free City,..... | $1,287,550 | $1,386,002 | $1,573,130 | $1,584,671 |
| Chartered City,..... | 4,648,786 | 4,845,270 | 4,570,719 | 4,834,343 |
| Total City,..... | $5,936,336 | $6,231,272 | $6,143,849 | $6,419,014 |
| " State,..... | $18,091,324 | $20,152,219 | 18,464,409 | $21,625,239 |

The greatest increase has been in the country chartered banks: that is to say, from August to November, the aggregate increase was $3,160,830; of this the country chartered banks were $2,349,382, leaving but $800,000, for all the other banks. This increase has been almost altogether on the part of the banks in the flour districts. This movement in the flour market was the result of the accounts which reached here of the great scarcity in England. The following table of the monthly receipts of flour and wheat to tide-water, expressed in bbls. of flour, with the price, in New York city, on the first Wednesday in each month, and the value of the receipts for each month, at that price, will indicate the powerful influence which the foreign news exerted:—

ARRIVAL OF FLOUR AND WHEAT AT TIDE-WATER, AND VALUE IN NEW YORK, MONTHLY, EXPRESSED IN BARRELS OF FLOUR.

| | Barrels. | Price. | Value. | Barrels. | Price. | Value. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| April,..... | 66,097 | $4 62½ | $305,698 | 199,976 | $4 62½ | $924,889 |
| May,..... | 368,561 | 4 62½ | 1,704,595 | 402,070 | 4 50 | 1,809,315 |
| June,..... | 297,278 | 4 31¼ | 1,281,268 | 234,879 | 4 62½ | 1,086,315 |
| July,..... | 306,980 | 4 31¼ | 1,223,033 | 204,301 | 4 31¼ | 881,048 |
| August,..... | 256,880 | 4 18¾ | 1,075,685 | 195,041 | 4 81¼ | 938,147 |
| September,..... | 361,012 | 4 37½ | 1,654,028 | 327,141 | 4 81¼ | 1,573,548 |
| October,..... | 427,396 | 4 81¼ | 1,789,721 | 541,686 | 6 25 | 3,385,537 |
| November,..... | 443,662 | 4 68¾ | 2,080,784 | 822,475 | 7 00 | 5,754,325 |
| Total,... | 2,527,866 | $4 44 | $11,214,862 | 2,928,569 | $5 58 | $16,363,122 |

The lowest point of flour was in July. The low prices which had (then ruled) operated to prevent flour from coming freely forward; this short supply, reacted upon prices, causing them to rise. When the advance was accelerated by the foreign news, flour and wheat came forward in an abundance never before equalled. This was held at $7 a $7 25—too high to export, and, as the receipts accumulated without a corresponding vent, the rates again fell. The monthly receipts of flour, at tide-water, for several years, with the aggregate receipts of wheat, were as follows:—

BARRELS OF FLOUR AND WHEAT ARRIVED AT TIDE-WATER, PER ERIE CANAL.

| | 1839. | 1840. | 1841. | 1842. | 1843. | 1844. | 1845. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| April, | 21,616 | 30,933 | ..... | 16,094 | ..... | 61,606 | 162,207 |
| May, | 120,386 | 240,884 | 249,487 | 221,155 | 185,086 | 341,216 | 306,474 |
| June, | 177,457 | 239,818 | 224,071 | 175,908 | 253,512 | 279,271 | 219,784 |
| July, | 65,165 | 117,213 | 151,066 | 122,737 | 234,205 | 226,081 | 186,336 |
| August, | 24,672 | 154,931 | 136,523 | 102,735 | 254,010 | 221,789 | 184,451 |
| Septem'r, | 83,549 | 239,719 | 254,573 | 259,483 | ..... | 315,070 | 284.636 |
| October, | 203,368 | 325,095 | 268,808 | 411,025 | ..... | 364,807 | 445,191 |
| Novemb'r | 255,716 | 420,144 | 321,048 | 252,258 | ..... | 412,400 | 699,452 |
| Decemb'r | 14,783 | 36,400 | 19,279 | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... |
| Tot. Flour | 967,712 | 1,805,137 | 1,624,855 | 1,561,395 | 926,813 | 2,222,240 | 2,488,531 |
| " in Wheat, | | | 781,055 | 928,347 | 327,346 | 1,262,249 | 1,604,113 |
| " in Flour, | | | 1,781,066 | 1,747,064 | 2,239,177 | 2,474,689 | 2,809,349 |

These figures, in some degree, illustrate the capacity of the great avenues to pour forth produce, whenever prices are such as to remunerate the farmer and miller. The events now passing abroad are such as to give a wide field for this demand, and urge, to its full extent, the capacity of the west to send forth its surplus products. The effect of the proposed change in the tariff, comes eminently in aid of this large export of produce, by checking the disposition to import goods, and, therefore, to bring specie into the country in exchange for the produce sent out; while the agitation of the sub-treasury, by preventing the extension of bank loans to the holding of produce, may operate to keep the prices at a regular healthy export level, and, by so doing, allows all the surplus to pass out of the country at its actual effective value, and, as a necessary consequence, to enhance the value of the returns into the country. These returns will take the shape of specie rather than of goods, inasmuch as the check given to the currency, by the change in the financial policy of the government, will check the inflation, now progressing, and reduce prices of imported goods; while the demand for specie, for government purposes, will enhance the comparative value of specie. If we turn to the imports for the last six years, embracing the operation of three tariffs, we find results as follows:—

IMPORTED GOODS INTO THE UNITED STATES.

| | Specie. | Free Goods. | Adval. Duties. | Specific. | Total. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1840, | $8,882,813 | $48,313,491 | $26,998,981 | $22,946,334 | $107,041,519 |
| 1841, | 4,988,633 | 61,031,098 | 34,610,642 | 27,315,804 | 127,946,177 |
| 1842, | 4,087,016 | 26,540,470 | 49,209,085 | 20,325,516 | 100,162,087 |
| 1843, | 22,320,335 | 13,257,249 | 16,684,875 | 12,494,340 | 64,753,799 |
| 1444, | 5,830,429 | 18,396,452 | 52,315,291 | 31,352,863 | 108,435,035 |
| 1845, | 4,070,242 | 18,077,598 | 60,191,862 | 34,914,862 | 117,254,564 |
| Total, | $50,179,468 | $185,616,358 | $240,010,736 | $149,349,739 | $625,593,181 |

The table presents a great diminution in the import of free goods under the tariff of 1841, which imposed duties on most articles, with the exception of tea and coffee. The import of ad valorem goods has greatly increased, more particularly since 1843, when the present tariff went into operation. The imports under that date it will be observed, are for nine months only. The exports for a corresponding period have been as follows:—

| | EXPORTS FOREIGN GOODS. | | | | DOMESTIC GOODS. | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Specie. Dolls. | Free Goods. Dolls. | Ad valorem. Dolls. | Specific. Dolls. | Specie. Dolls. | Goods. Dolls. | Total. Dolls. |
| 1840, | 6,171,041 | 6,212,562 | 3,271,728 | 2,534,081 | 2,235,073 | 111,060,561 | 132,085,946 |
| 1841, | 7,287,846 | 3,953,054 | 2,136,522 | 2,091,659 | 2,746,486 | 103,636,232 | 121,856,755 |
| 1842, | 3,642,785 | 3,195,299 | 2,842,762 | 2,041,692 | 1,170,754 | 91,799,242 | 104,691,534 |
| 1843, | 1,412,919 | 1,683,206 | 1,889,257 | 1,567,315 | 107,429 | 77,686,354 | 84,346,482 |
| 1844, | 5,270,809 | 2,251,550 | 1,706,206 | 2,256,302 | 183,405 | 99,531,774 | 111,200,046 |
| 1845, | 7,762,049 | 2,413,050 | 2,107,292 | 3,064,439 | 884,446 | 98,455,330 | 114,646,606 |
| | 31,548,349 | 19,708,721 | 13,953,767 | 13,555,488 | 7,287,993 | 582,769,493 | 668,827,375 |

The year 1839, was one of speculative imports: that is to say, the proceeds of large amounts of stocks, sold abroad, came home in the shape of specie. Since then, the number has fluctuated with the vicissitudes growing out of financial changes in this country. The results for six years, in relation to foreign goods, have been as follows:—

| | Specie. | Free Goods. | Ad valorem. | Specific. | Total. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Import, | $50,179,468 | $185,616,358 | $240,050,736 | $149,349,719 | $625,593,181 |
| Export, | 31,548,349 | 19,708,721 | 13,953,767 | 13,555,488 | 78,866,325 |
| Consump | $18,631,119 | $165,907,637 | $226,096,969 | $135,794,231 | $546,726,856 |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| This has been paid for with United States coin, | $7,287,993 | |
| " " " Produce & goods, | $582,799,493 | |
| | | $590,087,486 |
| In this we have an apparent loss of..... | | $43,360,630 |

That is to say, what we have given exceeds, by that amount, what we have received; yet this is very far from being the fact, because the specie balance has been in our favor by more than $11,000,000; showing that a profit on the whole exports has been realised. This has been the case under a high tariff, the effects of which have been, at times, counteracted by the expansion of the currency here. If the proposed measures of the government are carried through, the reverse will be the case, viz: the duties will be lower, but the currency will be dearer, and will maintain the prices of goods at a specie level, and perhaps, lower than the average abroad; consequently this operation of the financial policy of the government, would as effectually check imports as well as high duties, and will have the effect of promoting exports, for the same reason, viz: that prices will be generally low. The state of the currency has a far greater effect upon the foreign trade than is generally supposed. A tariff, which, in one state of the currency, is entirely prohibitive, is, in a more expanded state of credit, but little check upon imports, because, with fuller state of the currency, prices here rise to a degree which covers the amount of duties; but such a general use, it is evident, discourages exports to an extent quite as great, as it encourages imports, and produces a revulsion by the advanced state of exchanges. The state of affairs, so presented, is eminently such as to point to a great accumulation of money in the country. The specie basis is now much larger than ever before, and the outstanding credits, based upon that specie, greatly less than at some former periods. The tendency of affairs is to enhance that specie basis, while keeping a check upon the extension of credits, or of extended bank discounts, which are the most effective means of creating a demand for money; because, for any specified amount received *from* the banks, the maturity of the obligation requires a sum larger, at least, by the interest to be paid to them; and when the discounts are general, the prosperity must be general, and results active, to admit of their notes, in the aggregate, being met without pressure.

We have not here alluded to those political events that have lain heavy upon the markets during the month. The chief of these was the termination of the Oregon negotiation, without results. It was apprehended, from the high tone taken by both governments, that difficulties might arise from indisposition, or perhaps inability, of either party, to recede from the position it had taken; and stock-jobbers and political partisans endeavored to give the most effect to these apprehensions. Happily, however, the fears passed away, as the public became more confident that England would offer to take the forty-ninth parallel as the boundary, and that it would be accepted by the Senate. It is not to be disguised, however, but that the money-market was influenced, both here and in England, through the indisposition to loan money that these apprehensions produced. In England, moreover, the situation of the railroad deposits has excited great alarm. The deposits required by law amount to some £20,000,000, and should have been paid into the government by the 30th of November. They were mostly made in local depositories, and the transfer to the government must be made by February 30; and the manifest impossibility of paying so large a sum in money, excites alarm. The result will be, probably, that all the projects will be quashed by the government, on the ground that the proceedings have not been legal. These two circumstances are they which most affected the general state of affairs, and they are passing away, leaving the corn question a mere ministerial struggle.

# COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

## SHIPPING OF THE PORT OF BOSTON.

We published in the Merchants' Magazine, for November, 1845, a tabular statement of the registered and enrolled and licensed vessels of all denominations, owned in the city of New York, carefully prepared from the books of the Custom-House, expressly for this Magazine, by Mr. J. Dodge, Jr., a clerk in the naval office. We have now the pleasure of laying before our readers, through the politeness of the Hon. Marcus Morton, the worthy and efficient Collector of Customs for the port of Boston, a similar list of the shipping of that port. It was prepared with great labor and care, by Mr. S. Andrews, Marine Clerk and Registrar in the Boston Custom-House; to whom we would, also, return our grateful acknowledgments for his promptness, as well as the clear and legible form of the statement furnished by that gentleman for publication in our Journal.

This list of vessels is made up to the 1st of December, 1845, and includes all that are owned at the port of Boston, now under permanent registers or enrollments. Those vessels which belong to other districts, and now under temporary registers granted at that office, are not included.

We have no means of ascertaining the amount of tonnage owned in Boston, and now employed at other districts under temporary registers, but should think it at least equal to the temporary register tonnage at this port.

| | Tons. 95ths. |
|---|---|
| Amount of permanent register tonnage, Sept. 30, 1845,..... | 149,706.53 |
| " enrolled " " " ..... | 39,568.22 |
| | 189,274.75 |
| Amount of temporary register tonnage, Sept. 30, 1845,..... | 42,146.90 |
| Total,..... | 231,421.70 |

From a statement in the Treasurer's report, exhibiting a condensed view of the tonnage of the several districts of the United States, on the 30th of June, 1844, the registered tonnage of the district of Boston is put down at 175,330.52; enrolled and licensed, at 35,554.47—making a total of 210,885.04. The registered tonnage of the district of New York, according to the same statement, on the 30th of June, 1844, is put down at 253,888.23; and the enrolled and licensed at 271,273.75—making a total of 525,162.03.

### Ships.

| Names. | Tons. | Names. | Tons. | Names. | Tons. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Ariosto, | 361.46 | Belvidera, | 396.48 | Chilo, | 413.44 |
| Asia, | 474.69 | Berlin, | 613.02 | Carthage, | 426.00 |
| Arno, | 298.63 | Brewster, | 696.15 | California, | 369.02 |
| Alhambra, | 694.39 | Bertrand, | 397.40 | Cygnet, | 498.54 |
| Admittance, | 426.76 | Colchis, | 421.59 | Chicora, | 467.19 |
| Argo, | 449.73 | Cato, | 464.91 | Corsica, | 428.61 |
| Alabama, | 697.67 | Clarissa Andrews, | 396.74 | Charlotte, | 541.38 |
| Aldebaran, | 380.15 | Clarendon, | 536.56 | Congaree, | 321.12 |
| Areatus, | 548.32 | Chili, | 569.34 | Corsair, | 301.05 |
| Ashburton, | 449.23 | Concordia, | 602.34 | Carolus, | 581.63 |
| Aurelius, | 388.60 | Charlotte, | 390.54 | Colombo, | 577.44 |
| Archelaus, | 596.80 | Cairo, | 536.61 | Concord, | 321.29 |
| Augustine Heard, | 491.05 | Coquimbo, | 671.54 | Columbiana, | 630.75 |
| Albatross, | 745.62 | Cumberland, | 382.52 | Canton, | 298.78 |
| Ariel, | 234.59 | Charles Carroll, | 386.35 | Charles, | 486.21 |
| American, | 390.56 | Constantine, | 742.14 | Deucalion, | 513.18 |
| Antwerp, | 413.56 | Cherokee, | 411.64 | Damascus, | 694.00 |
| Bowditch, | 578.27 | Camera, | 385.90 | Dalmatia, | 358.52 |

SHIPS—Continued.

| Names. | Tons. | Names. | Tons. | Names. | Tons. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Diana, | 568.30 | Lapland, | 545.10 | Russell Glover, | 795.30 |
| Dumbarton, | 499.21 | Lucas, | 349.81 | Robert G. Shaw, | 402.11 |
| Duxbury, | 308.62 | Leonore, | 370.28 | Regulus, | 387.91 |
| Eliza Warwick, | 530.28 | Medford, | 544.90 | Sophia, | 632.08 |
| Ellen Brooks, | 464.76 | Margaret Forbes, | 383.44 | St. Petersburg, | 814.38 |
| Eli Whitney, | 532.50 | Mary Ellen, | 529.44 | Shaw, | 343.09 |
| Edward Everett, | 622.73 | Marathon, | 382.18 | Suffolk, | 518.27 |
| Essex, | 698.80 | Monsoon, | 380.64 | Sterling, | 539.69 |
| Edmund Perkins, | 617.02 | Moselle, | 398.23 | Surat, | 346.06 |
| Exchange, | 424.33 | Middlesex, | 496.51 | Sweden, | 646.07 |
| Elizabeth Bruce, | 586.53 | Merlin, | 313.13 | Saxon, | 344.50 |
| Eben. Preble, | 493.65 | Mary Broughton, | 322.90 | Sartelle, | 416.23 |
| Emily Taylor, | 387.91 | Mary Francis, | 326.46 | Santiago, | 420.27 |
| Epaminondas, | 548.79 | Mary Ann, | 496.91 | Soldan, | 648.03 |
| Fame, | 362.84 | Milton, | 597.64 | Sunbeam, | 843.61 |
| Franconia, | 499.10 | Montreal, | 542.72 | Sophia Walker, | 335.41 |
| Francis Whitney, | 454.39 | Martha, | 533.88 | Trenton, | 428.83 |
| Farwell, | 698.55 | Medora, | 314.00 | Tiber, | 303.43 |
| Francis Ann, | 446.13 | Mount Vernon, | 446.11 | Talma, | 296.00 |
| Gentoo, | 495.48 | Massachusetts, st. sh., | 750.73 | Tagliori, | 798.42 |
| George Hallett, | 420.24 | Malabar, | 648.08 | Timoleon, | 422.00 |
| Grotius, | 299.25 | Norfolk, | 548.29 | Tarquin, | 515.55 |
| Granada, | 593.40 | Neptune, | 498.34 | Tiger, | 312.25 |
| Gov. Davis, | 768.38 | Norman, | 508.22 | Tioga, | 419.00 |
| Gloucester, | 338.55 | Nestor, | 396.51 | Thos. H. Perkins, | 669.81 |
| Henry Tuke, | 365.71 | North Bend, | 365.12 | Thos. B. Wales, | 599.59 |
| Hampden, | 646.33 | Niobe, | 347.22 | Tonquin, | 496.17 |
| Hamilton, | 398.48 | Nile, | 334.27 | Tennessee, | 457.44 |
| Hamlet, | 494.03 | Naples, | 309.00 | Thos. W. Sears, | 499.91 |
| Heber, | 434.79 | New Jersey, | 636.21 | Vandalia, | 434.12 |
| Inez, | 356.22 | Nonantum, | 693.75 | Vespasian, | 317.91 |
| James Perkins, | 385.38 | Oceanus, | 473.37 | Versailles, | 547.50 |
| Jacob Perkins, | 379.08 | Oxmard, | 595.77 | Vancouver, | 518.07 |
| John Q. Adams, | 661.44 | Parthenon, | 536.17 | Windsor Castle, | 671.16 |
| Joshua Bates, | 620.26 | Pharsalia, | 617.34 | Woodside, | 633.70 |
| Kentucky, | 491.31 | Plato, | 397.43 | Wm. Gray, | 295.91 |
| Konohassett, | 426.60 | Plymouth, | 425.23 | Walpole, | 592.64 |
| Louisa, | 323.70 | Paul Jones, | 624.14 | Waldron, | 544.65 |
| Logan, | 332.25 | Rajah, | 531.25 | Warren, | 415.86 |
| Laura, | 685.22 | Robin Hood, | 395.37 | Wm. Goddard, | 536.17 |
| Loo Choo, | 639.36 | Rockall, | 644.06 | Washington Irving, | 751.01 |
| Leland, | 347.03 | Rubico, | 487.62 | Yumchi, | 419.75 |
| Levi H. Gale, | 421.64 | | | | |

BARKS.

| Names. | Tons. | Names. | Tons. | Names. | Tons. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Abbot Lord, | 437.06 | Cambridge, | 215.39 | Dunlap, | 197.00 |
| Autoleon, | 345.32 | Cuba, | 233.35 | Delphas, | 397.70 |
| Albert Henry, | 197.52 | Cambrian, | 196.74 | Diana, | 299.04 |
| America, | 313.08 | Commerce, | 289.24 | Douglas, | 466.76 |
| Adeline & Eliza, | 249.58 | Carib, | 205.08 | Daniel Webster, | 264.06 |
| Arab, | 353.65 | Craton, | 334.16 | Effort, | 271.34 |
| Altorf, | 258.88 | Chusan, | 240.01 | Emma Isadora, | 213.38 |
| Alabama, | 280.22 | Caroline, | 191.79 | Elvira, | 198.56 |
| Ardennes, | 231.77 | Coquette, | 457.26 | Ellen, | 372.93 |
| Anita, | 194.71 | California, | 187.41 | Edith, steam bark, | 407.15 |
| Azof, | 295.35 | Catharine, | 226.18 | Elizabeth Hull, | 320.74 |
| Amos Patten, | 294.67 | Catalpa, | 260.47 | Elk, | 198.13 |
| Brighton, | 337.44 | Chief, | 195.16 | Frederick Warren, | 363.37 |
| Bevis, | 214.11 | Convoy, | 249.40 | Fanny, | 529.13 |
| Brewster, | 215.47 | Como, | 224.67 | Francis, | 240.00 |
| Bashaw, | 392.18 | Dutchess, | 268.76 | Franklin, | 258.13 |

BARKS—Continued.

| Names. | Tons. | Names. | Tons. | Names. | Tons. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Flora, | 293.44 | Moscow, | 277.88 | Swan, | 272.02 |
| Griffon, | 301.29 | Maryland, | 194.89 | Sultan, | 353.89 |
| Ganges, | 225.56 | Morgan Dix, | 280.51 | Sharon, | 285.83 |
| Guinare, | 273.04 | Nautilus, | 215.82 | Sappho, | 319.47 |
| Hull, | 295.56 | Niagara, | 232.17 | Stag, | 274.09 |
| Hersilia, | 309.53 | Neptune, | 231.41 | Southerner, | 276.63 |
| Howland, | 275.37 | Nile, | 180.78 | Sylphide, | 348.92 |
| Harriet T. Bartlett, | 197.22 | Nahant, | 303.91 | Saranac, | 244.68 |
| Imogene, | 179.46 | New England, | 238.59 | Soluda, | 289.33 |
| Ida, | 195.52 | New World, | 229.14 | Tiberias, | 299.27 |
| Jacob S. Waln, | 264.49 | Natchez, | 299.75 | Tasso, | 286.22 |
| Juno, | 295.07 | New England, | 357.34 | Turbo, | 294.42 |
| John Parker, | 392.55 | Olga, | 332.76 | Talisman, | 346.51 |
| Janet, | 168.46 | Osmanli, | 287.09 | Tartar, | 321.57 |
| Justice Story, | 199.82 | Ohio, | 373.44 | Thetis, | 398.72 |
| James W. Page, | 199.24 | Olof Wyk, | 313.28 | Turk, | 197.02 |
| Kazan, | 205.81 | Palestine, | 248.80 | Undine, | 253.55 |
| Kilby, | 477.68 | Pico, | 215.66 | Verona, | 238.52 |
| Kensington, | 356.92 | Prompt, | 197.59 | Vernon, | 306.77 |
| Lintin, | 318.62 | Pilot, | 199.75 | Valhalla, | 275.00 |
| Lenox, | 370.00 | Peytona, | 269.52 | Velasco, | 271.15 |
| Lucy Penniman, | 270.13 | Peru, | 271.29 | Wolga, | 285.57 |
| Lawrence, | 198.24 | Palmetto, | 282.02 | Wave, | 197.18 |
| Manto, | 281.45 | Rouble, | 252.03 | Wallace, | 300.39 |
| Maid of Orleans, | 258.74 | Rio, | 198.36 | Warwick, | 337.20 |
| Maine, | 174.32 | Roman, | 245.45 | Wm. H. Shailer, | 243.28 |
| Montgomery, | 399.09 | Rochelle, | 285.71 | Wyman, | 193.45 |
| Mohawk, | 198.44 | Saxony, | 346.18 | Yarmouth, | 326.56 |
| Mary, | 268.40 | Susan Jane, | 294.94 | Z. D., | 311.26 |
| Mindoro, | 285.06 | St. Andrews, | 288.28 | Zamora, | 276.17 |
| Manchester, | 290.82 | Stamboul, | 279.39 | Zulette, | 198.52 |
| Miquelon, | 182.21 | Saphronia, | 197.84 | Zenobia, | 279.66 |
| Massasoit, | 206.38 | | | | |

BRIGS.

| Names. | Tons. | Names. | Tons. | Names. | Tons. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Albert, | 132.22 | Cameo, | 221.53 | Eagle, | 99.88 |
| Acadian, | 157.46 | Cecilia, | 152.04 | Eolus, | 116.84 |
| Antelope, | 372.63 | Cynosure, | 230.63 | Eliza Burgess, | 176.08 |
| Ann, | 147.14 | Commaquid, | 196.05 | Emerald, | 191.06 |
| Alderman, | 99.45 | Caroline & Mary, | 179.90 | Esther, | 135.18 |
| Anne & Julia, | 130.84 | Caroline, | 145.00 | Ella, | 164.80 |
| Attila, | 206.21 | Cyclops, | 227.20 | Erie, | 181.27 |
| Almatra, | 98.50 | Cervantes, | 249.62 | Emma, | 198.52 |
| Archelaus, | 111.91 | Cordelia, | 186.20 | Eagle, | 142.00 |
| Aurora, | 162.82 | Carleton, | 249.33 | Eliot, | 140.88 |
| Aldeboran, | 156.58 | Casilda, | 161.74 | Fame, | 257.24 |
| Aerial, | 147.26 | Cocheco, | 196.82 | Forest, | 171.30 |
| Acorn, | 198.06 | Calcutta, | 198.56 | Garnet, | 194,15 |
| Albert, | 209.16 | Canary, | 137.06 | George Ryan, | 212.73 |
| Almena, | 175.07 | Chatham, | 171.75 | Globe, | 239.36 |
| Ann Caroline, | 190.04 | Colorado, | 199.17 | Geo. W. Gifford, | 184.78 |
| Antares, | 199.45 | Choctaw, | 193.09 | Hector, | 198.04 |
| Antares, | 147.43 | Colombo, | 156.38 | Havana, | 163.84 |
| Belisarius, | 175.63 | Commodore Hull, | 118.29 | Harbinger, | 189.93 |
| Baltimore, | 169.23 | Creed, | 175.44 | Hallowell, | 203.09 |
| Baltimore, | 167.45 | Curacao, | 131.06 | Home, | 137.38 |
| Benj. Franklin, | 163.74 | Democrat, | 242.91 | Isabella, | 149.56 |
| Boston, | 170.73 | Draco, | 160.22 | Josephine, | 232.51 |
| Betsey, | 177.21 | Doctor Hitchcock, | 142.87 | Junius, | 225.14 |
| Cronstadt, | 273.26 | Dover, | 166.69 | John H. Stephens, | 185.85 |
| Calo, | 144.78 | Ellsworth, | 246.66 | Joseph Balch, | 153.00 |

BRIGS—Continued.

| Names. | Tons. | Names. | Tons. | Names. | Tons. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Lincoln, | 174.35 | Ocean, | 165.00 | Shawmut, | 205.36 |
| La Grange, | 139.01 | Pandora, | 210.94 | Speedwell, | 104.90 |
| Lysander, | 242.35 | Pilgrim, | 180.56 | Sarah Abigail, | 210.85 |
| Lucy, | 164.19 | Patapeco, | 170.08 | Sarah Jane, | 103.85 |
| Lewis Bruce, | 113.26 | Pauline, | 149.69 | Susan, | 142.36 |
| Mohawk, | 176.77 | Plymouth, | 178.48 | Sulla, | 145.38 |
| Margaretta, | 235.20 | Patriot, | 164.45 | Swan, | 137.73 |
| Maria Spear, | 199.43 | Ponce, | 177.58 | Tecumseh, | 190.47 |
| Montilla, | 123.44 | Porpoise, | 160.00 | Tuskar, | 247.76 |
| Mary Stanton, | 157.60 | Palm, | 188.68 | Token, | 138.07 |
| Martha, | 169.04 | Pearl, | 194.60 | Tangier, | 175.41 |
| Metamora, | 190.15 | Palm, | 127.56 | Talleyrand, | 187.15 |
| Martha, | 169.04 | Quincy, | 216.00 | Uncas, | 227.09 |
| Michigan, | 130.77 | Rodney, | 116.27 | Uncle Sam, | 135.25 |
| Mozart, | 128.77 | Rienzi, | 101.62 | Vernon, | 286.36 |
| Napoleon, | 192.49 | Russian, | 222.35 | Virgin, | 111.56 |
| New Castle, | 226.84 | Robert Waln, | 178.33 | William, | 197.60 |
| New England, | 155.67 | Rodolph, | 123.05 | Wallace, | 147.67 |
| North Bend, | 175.88 | Senator, | 193.56 | Wabash, | 298.62 |
| Ottoman, | 205.30 | Spartan, | 179.77 | Wm. Neilson, | 175.53 |
| Osceola, | 158.41 | Sea Eagle, | 199.62 | Willingsley, | 210.22 |
| Odeon, | 118.20 | Silenus, | 162.67 | Wm. M. Rogers, | 161.32 |
| Ontario, | 199.30 | Souther, | 197.74 | Wm. Penn, | 158.89 |
| Omar, | 123.67 | Sarah Williams, | 217.34 | Wm. Pitt, | 174.69 |
| Oak, | 206.83 | Snow, | 197.51 | Yucatan, | 177.50 |
| Oak, | 177.68 | | | | |

SCHOONERS.

| Names. | Tons. | Names. | Tons. | Names. | Tons. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Atlantic, | 97.22 | Brenda, yacht, | 33.15 | Eugene, | 107.07 |
| Alpine, | 121.20 | Brilliant, | 73.44 | Emily, | 24.57 |
| Aurora, | 110.33 | Cape Fear, | 103.12 | Envoy, | 74.79 |
| Amity, | 56.14 | Cygnet, | 91.51 | Emerald, | 73.18 |
| Alfred, | 66.21 | Charlotte, | 57.38 | Emeline, | 87.42 |
| Ann, | 51.14 | Charles, | 49.67 | Ensign, | 65.91 |
| Arbella, | 20.43 | Compliance, | 144.20 | Eliza Ann, | 33.00 |
| Atlantic, | 94.94 | Clarissa Howard, | 68.73 | Envoy, | 111.46 |
| Agenoria, | 61.65 | Convoy, | 74.19 | Excel, | 139.34 |
| Anti, | 85.41 | Cornelia, | 96.94 | Eagle, | 51.95 |
| Albany Packet, | 90.41 | Columbia, | 48.05 | Echo, | 69.73 |
| Albert M. Hale, | 134.73 | Clarissa, | 117.16 | Eliza Matilda, | 89.28 |
| Arcot, | 145.69 | Cassius, | 99.43 | Erie, | 113,15 |
| Adventurer, | 69.85 | Crowner, | 53.44 | Exchange, | 56.55 |
| Anaconda, | 85.20 | Cygnet, yacht, | 31.08 | Excelsior, | 84.62 |
| Andrew Brown, | 127,51 | Crocodile, | 39.65 | Elizabeth, | 117.31 |
| Alice & Nancy, | 61.29 | Challenge, | 165.79 | Emerald, | 79.25 |
| Amelia, | 69.27 | Cicero, | 41.67 | European, | 89.44 |
| Alexander, | 103.24 | Charleston Packet, | 69.80 | E. Randall, | 143.11 |
| Ancona, | 89.06 | Convoy, | 45.56 | Fair Play, | 20.80 |
| Breeze, yacht, | 40.03 | Council, | 99.14 | Franklin, | 36.15 |
| Beaver, | 62.04 | Dover, | 87.67 | Federal George, | 34.70 |
| Bazaar, | 22.14 | Dolphin, | 28.02 | Fair Play, | 101.51 |
| Berry, | 97.44 | Dusky Sally, | 86.68 | Fancy, | 136.85 |
| Boston, | 147.65 | Director, | 62.32 | Friendship, | 53.01 |
| Banner, | 87.86 | David Cox, | 148.48 | Friend, | 149.07 |
| Brainard, | 74.26 | Detroit, | 99.88 | Frolic, | 88.01 |
| Bethiah, | 34.76 | Denmark, | 99.12 | Fame, | 96.14 |
| Byron, | 47.35 | Daniel Webster, | 113.17 | Frederick Warren, | 121.63 |
| Benj. Reed, | 41.70 | Doris, | 83.13 | Forest, | 54.24 |
| Balance, | 74.87 | Dart, | 103,74 | Florence, | 84.25 |
| Benj. Bigelow, | 153.57 | Eunice, | 49.78 | Fulcrum, | 81.29 |
| Brutus, | 60.60 | Enterprise, | 191.50 | Frances, | 73.39 |

Schooners—Continued.

| Names. | Tons. | Names. | Tons. | Names. | Tons. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Franklin, | 60.38 | Luther, | 54.39 | Richmond, | 198.74 |
| George & William, | 140.26 | Lygonia, | 147.78 | Rebecca, | 62.77 |
| Gazelle, | 114.63 | Laurel, | 88.71 | Renown, | 129.34 |
| George Pollok, | 96.57 | Lowell, | 130.15 | Roxana, | 37.68 |
| George Washington, | 39.28 | Lavinia, | 64.66 | Rose, | 122.09 |
| Gov. Eustis, boat, | 9.91 | Lady Temperance, | 58.02 | Reaper, | 94.20 |
| Gov. Strong, | 28.81 | Laurel, | 99.28 | Rome, | 20.45 |
| George, | 89.11 | Mac, | 80.59 | Rambler, | 103.68 |
| Gladiator, | 98.62 | Mary, | 65.00 | Rambler, | 122.19 |
| Gleaner Packet, | 64.49 | Midas, | 186.13 | Rienzi, | 86.70 |
| Gen. Miller, | 51.00 | Marion, | 87.61 | Robin Hood, | 110.39 |
| Glide, | 110.42 | Mary Jane, | 22.82 | Red Robin, | 55.71 |
| Grandee, | 157.91 | Mary, | 60.08 | Rapid, | 123.22 |
| Genoa, | 153.45 | Mary Adeline, | 26.35 | Rodney, | 56.68 |
| Gleaner, | 22.08 | Mary, | 58.09 | Sterling, | 148.19 |
| Good Hope, | 80.66 | Martha Wood, | 114.61 | St. Thomas, | 74.91 |
| Gournet, | 68.27 | Marion, | 61.90 | St. Paul, | 94.38 |
| George & William, | 140.26 | Mary, | 61.53 | Superior, | 131.48 |
| Gipsey, | 20.48 | Mary Ann, | 110.63 | Shylock, | 119.94 |
| Gen. Foster, | 103.61 | Meridian, | 70.49 | Splendid, | 151.78 |
| Huron, | 106.51 | Mary Elizabeth, | 104.76 | Sarah, | 63.77 |
| Henry, | 98.22 | Mary, | 56.69 | Susan, | 92.26 |
| Hancock, | 50.73 | Mogul, | 119.30 | Sam. A. Appleton, | 177.19 |
| Homer, | 175.40 | Mary Jane, | 22.82 | Salem, | 72.16 |
| Hornet, | 52.16 | North. Light, yacht, | 69.90 | Susan Baker, | 99.47 |
| Henry A. Breed, | 130.63 | Newcomb, | 47.23 | Sylph, | 66.40 |
| Harriet, | 64.18 | New York, | 96.66 | Sarah Ripley, | 68.49 |
| Helen Frazar, | 90.37 | Nimrod, | 98.87 | Star, | 23.08 |
| Henry, | 120.86 | North Battery, | 68.45 | Susan, | 134.09 |
| Hudson, | 75.15 | North Carolina, | 129.43 | Statesman, | 72.07 |
| Hunter, | 70.00 | Nettle, | 65.06 | Sun, | 183 65 |
| Henry Clay, | 70.05 | Nancy Treat, | 90.00 | St. Helena, | 104.87 |
| Home, | 70.22 | Nassau, | 107.91 | Southerner, | 99.10 |
| Hero, | 80.89 | Niagara, | 99.45 | Sarah, | 52.04 |
| Harriet, | 116.04 | Ontario, | 92.67 | Spitfire, | 97.10 |
| Howard, | 184.83 | Orleans, | 125.16 | Stranger, | 98.25 |
| Industry, | 55.40 | Owen, | 50.42 | Sidney, | 79.12 |
| Irene, | 116.08 | Ornament, | 74.31 | Tremont, | 143.65 |
| Independence, | 40.02 | Ocean, | 99.79 | Troubadour, | 60.27 |
| Independence, | 49.81 | Oriole, | 106.00 | Tellus, | 98.14 |
| Independence, | 72.58 | Odd Fellow, yacht, | 29.80 | Two Brothers, | 95.76 |
| Iowa, | 83.00 | October, | 114.47 | Two Brothers, | 29.35 |
| Isaac Franklin, | 139.67 | Pilot, | 141.74 | Two Brothers, | 34.01 |
| Josephine, | 123.15 | Post-Boy, | 49.30 | Tangent, | 71.91 |
| Jerome, | 107.92 | Polly, | 49.07 | Two Friends, | 47.07 |
| Jasper, | 135.23 | Post-Boy, | 65.24 | Trader, | 61.04 |
| Julia, | 43.51 | Pearl, | 60.27 | Thos. H. Thompson, | 96.46 |
| Jane, | 124.87 | Packet, | 30.75 | Talent, | 86.81 |
| Jubilee, | 62.39 | Pearl, | 73.24 | Thompsonian, | 55.36 |
| Jane, | 112.00 | Phantom, | 76.30 | Trio, | 141.35 |
| Julia, | 115.12 | Pilgrim, | 120.78 | Undine, | 132.78 |
| John Cooley & Co., | 183.18 | Pearl, | 36.46 | Vesta, | 78.44 |
| Joy, | 99.74 | Palestine, | 85.12 | Volant, | 57.04 |
| Kamehumeha 3d, | 116.50 | Page, | 149.69 | Vesper, | 83,52 |
| Katahdin, | 139.80 | Packet, | 58.46 | Vintage, | 97.72 |
| Kosciusko, | 122.59 | Pandora, | 62.04 | Vision, | 23.85 |
| Lorinda, | 63.37 | Primus, | 43.45 | Vesta, | 78.44 |
| Lively, | 34.92 | Potomac, | 128 30 | Victor, | 167.38 |
| Lexington, | 96.11 | Perseverance, | 88.00 | Viola, | 101.71 |
| Louisa, | 98.70 | Pioneer, | 67.16 | Vanda, | 147.09 |
| Leaper, | 62.20 | Phantom, | 51.29 | Watchman, | 104.89 |

SCHOONERS—Continued.

| Names. | Tons. | Names. | Tons. | Names. | Tons. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Waldo, | 98.00 | Wm. Wilson, | 97.03 | White Oak, | 47.68 |
| White Oak, | 90.40 | Wasp, | 40.32 | Zephyr, | 92.31 |
| Wave, | 96.43 | William, | 49.74 | | |

SLOOPS.

| Names. | Tons. | Names. | Tons. | Names. | Tons. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Albion, | 28.89 | Gen. Lovell, | 35.66 | Meridian, | 24.99 |
| Almira, | 40.43 | Grecian, | 152.52 | Mariah & Hannah, | 60.78 |
| Abigail Little, | 90.10 | Gladiator, | 25.19 | Mary, | 37.00 |
| Albion, | 65.03 | Good Intent, | 29.68 | Nancy, | 75.78 |
| Belle Savage, | 35.00 | Granite, | 40.25 | Newcomb, | 36.73 |
| Betsey, | 24.00 | Glide, | 58.88 | New York, | 31.96 |
| Brilliant, | 37.63 | Hero, | 25.28 | Nancy, | 36.66 |
| Brilliant, | 39.30 | Hornet, | 26.18 | Nancy, | 35.44 |
| Betsey, | 25.69 | Hero, | 43.51 | Olive Branch, | 31.10 |
| Concord, | 33.73 | Hero, | 61.65 | Polly, | 35.18 |
| Cyrus, | 37.81 | Irene, | 23.24 | Purser, | 30.29 |
| Combine, | 40.60 | Levi Bates, | 36.38 | Quincy, | 38.75 |
| Caroline, | 26.00 | Louisa, | 40.17 | Rapid, | 38.83 |
| Canton, | 46.44 | Linnæus, | 59.42 | Stranger, | 40.30 |
| Clarissa, | 59.13 | Lion, | 37.51 | Sarah Jane, | 39.44 |
| Charles, | 49.42 | Mayflower, | 25.56 | Splendid, | 35.38 |
| Dove, | 30.27 | Mechanic, | 32.87 | Two Cousins, | 24.47 |
| Diamond, | 55.56 | Malvina, | 34.26 | Traveller, | 32.92 |
| Edward, | 35.44 | Mayflower, | 32.42 | Truth, | 35.51 |
| Express, | 55.10 | Magnolia, | 36.17 | Volant, | 44.56 |
| Eagle, | 58.00 | Messenger, | 40.28 | Volant, | 34.00 |
| Essex, | 20.58 | Milo, | 43.00 | Washington, | 32.22 |
| Flash, | 34.93 | | | | |

STEAMERS.

| Names. | Tons. | Names. | Tons. | Names. | Tons. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Boston, | 105.12 | East Boston, | 164.26 | Malden, | 105.37 |
| Chelsea, | 107.52 | Eastern Railroad, | 242.33 | Mattakees, | 22.06 |
| Charter Oak, | 545.16 | Huntress, | 333.13 | Neponset, | 73.27 |
| Essex, | 164.26 | Maverick, | 164.26 | Portland, | 445.46 |

## EXPORTS OF TEA FROM CHINA TO THE UNITED STATES,

FROM JUNE 30, 1844, TO JULY 1, 1845, COMPARED WITH THE TWELVE MONTHS PRECEDING.

| | 1844–5. | 1843–4. |
|---|---|---|
| Green—Young Hyson,.....lbs. | 9,182,281 | 6,800,419 |
| Hyson,..... | 354,915 | 539,794 |
| Hyson Skin and Twankay,..... | 2,644,859 | 1,738,291 |
| Gunpowder,..... | 944,065 | 597,088 |
| Imperial,..... | 674,979 | 456,245 |
| Total green,.....lbs. | 13,802,099 | 10,131,837 |
| | 1844–5. | 1843–4. |
| Black—Souchong and Congou,.....lbs. | 5,264,090 | 3,133,133 |
| Powchong,..... | 1,318,731 | 799,622 |
| Pecco,..... | 51,906 | 60,178 |
| Orange Pecco,..... | 12,862 | ..... |
| Oolong,..... | 302,870 | 132,594 |
| Total black,.....lbs. | 6,950,459 | 4,125,527 |

From the above table, it appears that the total quantity of tea exported to the United States in the twelve months ending July, 1845, was 20,752,558 lbs.; and for the same period of the previous year it was 14,257,364—increase in 1845, over the previous year, 6,495,194.

## UNITED STATES, NEW YORK STATE, AND CITY STOCKS.

LIST OF UNITED STATES, NEW YORK STATE, AND NEW YORK CITY STOCKS, PREPARED EXPRESSLY FOR THE MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE, BY J. F. ENTZ, OF THE NEW YORK LIFE INSURANCE AND TRUST COMPANY.

| Rate. | Redeemable. | Int. | payable, and where. | Purpose for which issued. | Total amount. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 6 p. c. | January 1, 1863. | ½ | Deposit Banks. | United States Loan. | $8,343,886 82 |
| 5 | July 1, 1853. | ½ | " | " | 7,004,231 55 |
| | | | | | $15,348,118 37 |

Interest payable 1st January and 1st July.

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 7 | July 1, 1848. | ½ | Manhattan Co. | To preserve credit of the state. | $1,584,736 00 |
| 7 | July 1, 1849. | ½ | " | " " " | 2,062,400 00 |
| 6 | July 1, 1852. | ½ | " | " " " | 400,000 00 |
| 6 | July 1, 1860. | ½ | " | " " " | 620,000 00 |
| 5 | June 1, 1862. | ½ | " | " " " | 655,000 00 |
| 6 | Sept. 1, 1861. | ½ | Merch. Bank. | New York and Erie Railroad. | 100,000 00 |
| 6 | Oct. 1, 1861. | ½ | " | " " " | 100,000 00 |
| 6 | Jan. 1, 1862. | ½ | " | " " " | 100,000 00 |
| 6 | July 1, 1862. | ½ | " | " " " | 800,000 00 |
| 5½ | July 1, 1860. | ½ | " | " " " | 200,000 00 |
| 5½ | Oct. 1, 1860. | ½ | " | " " " | 200,000 00 |
| 5½ | Jan. 1, 1861. | ½ | " | " " " | 200,000 00 |
| 5½ | Feb. 1, 1861. | ½ | " | " " " | 200,000 00 |
| 5½ | March 1, 1861. | ½ | " | " " " | 100,000 00 |
| 5½ | April 1, 1861. | ½ | " | " " " | 200,000 00 |
| 5½ | May 1, 1861. | ½ | " | " " " | 100,000 00 |
| 5½ | June 1, 1861. | ½ | " | " " " | 100,000 00 |
| 5½ | July 1, 1861. | ½ | " | " " " | 200,000 00 |
| 5½ | Aug. 4, 1861. | ½ | " | " " " | 100,000 00 |
| 4½ | Jan. 1, 1859. | ½ | " | " " " | 100,000 00 |
| 4½ | July 1, 1859. | ½ | " | " " " | 100,000 00 |
| 4½ | Oct. 1, 1859. | ½ | " | " " " | 100,000 00 |
| 6 | July 1, 1854. | ½ | Manhattan Co. | Erie Enlargement. | 500,000 00 |
| 6 | July 1, 1860. | ½ | " | " | 303,100 00 |
| 5 | Jan. 1, 1856. | ½ | " | " | 4,000,000 00 |
| 5 | July 1, 1858. | ½ | " | " | 2,225,519 29 |
| 5 | July 1, 1846. | ½ | " | Oswego Canal. | 421,304 00 |
| 5 | July 1, 1846. | ½ | " | Cayuga and Seneca Canal. | 150,000 00 |
| 5 | July 1, 1849. | ½ | " | " " " | 87,000 00 |
| 6 | Jan. 1, 1861. | ½ | " | Chemung Canal. | 18,682 00 |
| 5 | Aug. 1, 1850. | ½ | " | " | 316,000 00 |
| 5 | Jan. 1, 1861. | ½ | " | " | 114,292 23 |
| 5 | Aug. 1, 1850. | ½ | " | Crooked Lake Canal. | 120,000 00 |
| 6 | Jan. 1, 1851. | ½ | " | Chenango Canal. | 20,000 00 |
| 5 | Jan. 1, 1854. | ½ | " | " | 20,000 00 |
| 6 | July 1, 1860. | ½ | " | Black River Canal. | 10,000 00 |
| 5 | Jan. 1, 1851. | ½ | " | " | 800,000 00 |
| 5 | July 1, 1858. | ½ | " | " | 276,706 23 |
| 6 | July 1, 1860. | ½ | " | Genesee Valley Canal. | 10,000 00 |
| 5 | July 1, 1858. | ½ | " | " | 556,379 82 |
| 5 | Jan. 1, 1861. | ½ | " | " | 2,000,000 00 |
| 5 | April 1, 1851. | ½ | " | Oneida Lake Canal. | 50,000 00 |
| 5 | Jan. 1, 1861. | ½ | " | Oneida River Improvement. | 50,000 00 |
| 5 | At pleasure. | ½ | Comp. off., Alb. | John Jacob Astor. | 561,500 00 |
| 5 | Jan. 1, 1848. | ½ | Manhattan Co. | Bank fund. | 348,107 00 |
| 5½ | Jan. 1, 1865. | ½ | Bank of state. | Ithaca and Oswego Railroad Co. | 28,000 00 |
| 4½ | Jan. 1, 1864. | ½ | " | " " " | 287,700 00 |
| 5 | July 1, 1858. | ½ | Chemical B'k. | Catskill and Canajoharie Railroad. | 100,000 00 |
| 5 | July 1, 1859. | ½ | " | " " " | 50,000 00 |
| 5 | July 1, 1860. | ½ | " | " " " | 50,000 00 |
| 5 | Jan. 1, 1848. | ½ | Del. & H. C. Co. | Delaware and Hudson Canal Co. | 500,000 00 |
| 4½ | Jan. 1, 1850. | ½ | " | " " " | 300,000 00 |

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 5 | Jan. | 1, 1858. | ½ | Phœnix Bank. | Auburn and Syracuse Railroad. | 200,000 00 |
| 5½ | Aug. | 1, 1860. | ½ | Bank of state. | Auburn and Rochester Railroad. | 100,000 00 |
| 5½ | Jan. | 1, 1861. | ½ | " | " " " | 100,000 00 |
| 5½ | July | 1, 1865. | ½ | Mech. Bank. | Hudson and Berkshire Railroad. | 150,000 00 |
| 5½ | July | 1, 1865. | ½ | Merch. Bank. | Tonawanda Railroad Co. | 100,000 00 |
| 6 | Aug. | 1, 1861. | ½ | " | Long Island Railroad. | 100,000 00 |
| 6 | July | 1, 1867. | ½ | " | Schenectady and Troy Railroad. | 100,000 00 |
| 5½ | July | 1, 1865. | ½ | Mech. Bank. | Tioga Coal, Iron Min., and Man. Co. | 70,000 00 |
| | | | | | | $7,058,393 05 |
| | | | | | Contra, | 16,458,033 52 |

New York State Stock,..... $13,516,426 57

Semi-annual interest payable 1st January and 1st July.

Quarterly " " 1st January, 1st April, 1st July, and 1st October.

NEW YORK CITY STOCKS.

| Rate. | Redeemable. | Int. payable. | | Amounts. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 7 | 1st February, 1847. | ½ | Water Loan Stock. | $120,305 |
| 7 | 1st " 1852. | ½ | " | 90,857 |
| 7 | 1st August, 1852. | ½ | " | 799,350 |
| 7 | 1st February, 1857. | ½ | " | 989,488 |
| 5 | 1st January, 1858. | ½ | " | 3,000,000 |
| 5 | 1st " 1860. | ½ | " | 2,500,000 |
| 2 | 1st Nov'r, 1870. | ½ | " | 3,000,000 |
| 5 | 1st " 1880. | ½ | " | 978,354 |
| 5 | 1st January, 1850. | ½ | City Stock of 1820 and '29. | 250,000 |
| 5 | 1st August, 1850. | ½ | " | |
| 5 | 6th May, 1856. | ½ | Public Building Stock. | 515,000 |
| 5 | 16th January, 1851. | ½ | Fire Loan Stock. | 500,000 |
| 5 | 10th May, 1868. | ½ | Fire Indemnity Stock. | 375,088 |

Permanent city debt,..... $13,118,442

Semi-annual interest payable 1st February and 1st August.

Quarterly " " 1st February, 1st May, 1st August, and 1st November.

## PENNSYLVANIA COAL TRADE.

THE COAL TRADE.—The Pennsylvania supplies of coal, according to the Philadelphia Commercial List, by the various canals, have ceased for the season, and by the Reading railroad have been limited, and will continue so for some months to come. During the winter, 1,000 new cars are to be constructed, to be put on the road next spring. The enlargement of the Schuylkill canal is rapidly approaching to completion, and $140,000 have been subscribed to construct boats carrying 150 to 200 tons of coal, to ply upon this work next season. Already 100 boats of this tonnage have been contracted for, to be completed early in the spring.

The receipts from the Lehigh mines, this season, have been as follows:—

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Lehigh Company,..... | tons | 257,740 |
| Beaver Meadow Company,..... | | 77,227 |
| Hazleton Company,..... | | 70,266 |
| Buck Mountain,..... | | 23,914 |
| Total,..... | tons | 429,159 |
| By Schuylkill Canal,..... | tons | 263,588 |
| Reading Railway,..... | | 791,762 |
| Lackawana, say..... | | 270,000 |
| Wyoming Valley,..... | | 178,401 |
| Pine Grove,..... | | 31,106 |
| Total supply,..... | tons | 1,964,016 |

The total supply, by the close of the year, will exceed two millions of tons of coal.

## TRADE OF GREAT BRITAIN WITH FRANCE.

The following official account, made up at the "Office of the Inspector-General of Imports and Exports, Custom House, London," exhibits in a comprehensive form the exports from Great Britain to France, and the imports from France into Great Britain, for thirty-one years, that is, for each year from 1814 to 1844 inclusive.

| | EXPORTS TO FRANCE. Official Value. | | | | IMPORTS FROM FRANCE. | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Years. | Declared value of British and Irish produce and manufactures. | British and Irish produce and manufactures. | Foreign and colonial merchandise. | Total | Official Value. | Amount of import duties (customs and excise.) |
| 1814 | £582,703 | £377,799 | £1,870,337 | £2,248,136 | £740,227 | £913,128 |
| 1815 | 298,292 | 214,824 | 1,228,856 | 1,443,680 | 754,372 | 1,182,843 |
| 1816 | 407,700 | 321,070 | 1,313,152 | 1,634,222 | 417,783 | 992,367 |
| 1817 | 1,003,486 | 596,753 | 1,054,262 | 1,651,015 | 527,866 | 1,017,354 |
| 1818 | 369,504 | 318,851 | 877,912 | 1,196,763 | 1,162,424 | 1,145,845 |
| 1819 | 299,493 | 248,078 | 734,780 | 982,858 | 642,012 | 1,335,958 |
| 1820 | 390,745 | 334,087 | 829,814 | 1,163,901 | 775,132 | 1,412,548 |
| 1821 | 438,266 | 382,404 | 1,037,101 | 1,419,505 | 865,617 | 1,501,430 |
| 1822 | 437,009 | 346,811 | 839,150 | 1,185,961 | 878,273 | 1,610,329 |
| 1823 | 349,636 | 241,837 | 743,575 | 985,412 | 1,115,800 | 1,723,827 |
| 1824 | 338,635 | 260,498 | 864,501 | 1,124,999 | 1,556,734 | 1,838,411 |
| 1825 | 360,710 | 279,212 | 892,403 | 1,171,615 | 1,835,985 | 1,967,499 |
| 1826 | 488,438 | 426,820 | 656,124 | 1,082,944 | 1,247,426 | 2,037,165 |
| 1827 | 446,951 | 416,726 | 133,504 | 550,230 | 2,625,748 | 2,058,831 |
| 1828 | 498,938 | 448,945 | 195,498 | 644,443 | 3,178,825 | 2,176,233 |
| 1829 | 491,381 | 509,925 | 337,897 | 847,818 | 2,086,994 | 1,963,257 |
| 1830 | 475,884 | 486,284 | 181,065 | 667,349 | 2,317,686 | 1,963,400 |
| 1831 | 602,688 | 636,097 | 256,082 | 892,179 | 3,056,155 | 1,936,698 |
| 1832 | 674,791 | 847,487 | 621,822 | 1,469,309 | 2,452,894 | 2,271,249 |
| 1833 | 848,333 | 997,321 | 314,317 | 1,311,638 | 2,577,215 | 2,015,540 |
| 1834 | 1,116,885 | 1,280,667 | 546,923 | 1,827,590 | 2,808,257 | 2,056,551 |
| 1835 | 1,453,636 | 1,561,915 | 505,346 | 2,067,261 | 2,746,999 | 1,956,689 |
| 1836 | 1,591,381 | 1,700,665 | 644,950 | 2,345,615 | 3,125,978 | 1,973,492 |
| 1837 | 1,643,204 | 2,036,844 | 839,207 | 2,876,051 | 2,707,587 | 1,900,648 |
| 1838 | 2,314,141 | 3,193,923 | 691,080 | 3,885,003 | 3,431,118 | 1,988,267 |
| 1839 | 2,298,307 | 3,118,410 | 514,243 | 3,632,653 | 4,022,790 | 1,986,056 |
| 1840 | 2,378,149 | 3,543,665 | 627,038 | 4,170,703 | 3,775,754 | 1,913,037 |
| 1841 | 2,902,002 | 4,709,588 | 806,200 | 5,515,788 | 3,654,428 | 1,969,135 |
| 1842 | 3,193,939 | 5,506,842 | 683,872 | 6,190,714 | 4,160,509 | 2,059,634 |
| 1843 | 2,534,898 | 4,305,616 | 765,187 | 5,070,803 | 3,387,741 | 1,741,660 |
| 1844 | 2,656,259 | 4,375,228 | 828,948 | 5,204,176 | 3,687,878 | 1,879,799 |

## PRODUCTION OF SUGAR IN LOUISIANA.

The comparative statements of sugar produced in the several precincts of Louisiana, in 1843 and 1844, is derived from the Planter's, (Attak.) Banner.

| | 1843. Hhds. | 1844. Hhds. | | 1843. Hhds. | 1844. Hhds. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| St. Mary, | 15,311 | 18,795 | West Baton Rouge, | 3,087 | 4,247 |
| Ascension, | 10,633 | 19,223 | St. Martin, | 2,621 | 4,419 |
| Iberville, | 9,644 | 16,463 | East Baton Rouge, | 2,334 | 4,474 |
| St. James, | 9,350 | 21,519 | St. Bernard, | 2,026 | 6,941 |
| Lafourche Interior, | 6,732 | 14,205 | Lafayette, | 908 | 372 |
| Plaquemines, | 6,641 | 14,761 | Orleans, | 778 | |
| Terrebonne, | 6,366 | 12,661 | St. Landry, | 395 | 1,179 |
| Assumption, | 6,256 | 11,990 | Point Coupee, | 246 | 888 |
| St. Charles, | 5,822 | 12,532 | Vermilion, | 000 | 862 |
| St. John the Baptist, | 5,743 | 12,575 | Divers small parcels, | | 1,000 |
| Jefferson, | 5,453 | 11,218 | | 100,346 | 191,334 |

## COMMERCE OF FRANCE IN 1844.

We usually receive, through a correspondent of the Merchants' Magazine residing in Paris, the annual official statements of the trade and commerce of that country, soon after it is published; in the absence of that document we avail ourself of the following summary, from a private correspondent of the European Times.

It appears that the official returns of the commerce of France for 1844 have lately been published, and are of a very satisfactory character. They present the following results:—

| | Importations. *Francs.* | Exportations. *Francs.* | Total. *Francs.* |
|---|---|---|---|
| England, | 145,000,000 | 144,000,000 | 289,000,000 |
| Sardinian States and Austria, | 110,000,000 | 95,000,000 | 205,000,000 |
| Switzerland, | 97,000,000 | 106,000,000 | 203,000,000 |
| Belgium, | 125,000,000 | 54,000,000 | 179,000,000 |
| German Association, (Zollverein,) | 83,000,000 | 72,000,000 | 155,000,000 |
| Spain, | 41,000,000 | 102,000,000 | 146,000,000 |
| Italy, (Sicily, Tuscany, and Rome,) | 42,000,000 | 40,000,000 | 82,000,000 |
| Russia, | 63,000,000 | 17,000,000 | 80,000,000 |
| Turkey and Greece, | 45,000,000 | 20,000,000 | 65,000,000 |
| Low Countries, (Netherlands,) | 29,000,000 | 19,000,000 | 48,000,000 |
| Anseatic Towns, | 13,000,000 | 23,000,000 | 36,000,000 |
| Sweden, Norway, and Denmark, | 22,000,000 | 4,000,000 | 26,000,000 |
| Portugal, | 2,000,000 | 4,000,000 | 6,000,000 |

So much for Europe. The total amount of the importations and exportations for the different States of America is 461,000,000; for Africa, 42,000,000; for Asia, 55,000,000; and for the French colonies, including Algiers, 250,000,000. In the American division, the United States figure for 133,000,000 of importations, and 102,000,000 of exportations—total, 435,000,000. Thus the United States transact more commerce with France than any other country in the world, even than England. The importations from the United States consist of cottons *en laine* for 97½ millions, tobacco for 22 millions, and other articles of inferior importance. The exportations consist of silk *tissus* for 43 millions; linen *tissus* for 17 millions; cotton *tissus* for 6 millions; lace for 3 millions; wines for 3 millions, and other articles of lesser importance.

In alluding to the foregoing abstract, the Paris correspondent of the Times remarks:—

I have not space to give a detailed account, for the different countries, of the increase or diminution of the exports and imports as compared with previous years; but, generally speaking, there has been an increase with all countries. With the States, the increase is 33 millions, as compared with 1843. The total amount, however, of the trade transacted is less than in 1839 and 1841, owing, as is said, to the hostile tariffs of the States. In the importation of cotton last year, there is a decrease compared with the previous year; and on tobacco to the amount of about 8,000,000. In the exports there is an increase of 10 millions on silk, about 8 million on linen *tissus*, and about 1½ million on wines. This last increase is considered remarkable, as it is in spite of the American tariff,—still it is much inferior to 1841, when the total export was about 7 millions. It is hoped by the wine-masters of France that the States will have sense enough to modify their tariff, in which case an immense increase in the exportation of wines is expected. With other countries of the Northern and Southern Continents of America, the trade of France has increased to an extent proportionate to that of the United States; but, comparatively speaking, it has been more to the profit of France than her relations with the United States, her exports far exceeding the imports. In conclusion, it must be mentioned that the returns of France do not represent the exact value of either imports or exports, both being calculated according to a scale settled in 1826, since which, some articles have fallen in price, and others have increased: still, by striking a balance between the increase and the decrease, the result will be about the same. Considering the vast importance of annual returns of commerce, not only to France, but to all the nations with which she trades, it is to be desired that, in future, she will calculate the value of her exports and imports by their value in the market, and not by a scale of what they were nearly twenty years ago. It is just as easy to take the prices of the current year as of 1826."

# COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

## THE TREATY BETWEEN CHINA AND THE UNITED STATES.

### "OF PEACE, AMITY, AND COMMERCE."

We published in the Merchants' Magazine for March, 1845, (Vol. 12, No. 3, pp. 288, 289, 290,) under the department of "Commercial Regulations," an official abstract of the "Treaty of Wang-Hey," effected by our Commissioner, Caleb Cushing, Envoy Extraordinary, and Minister Plenipotentiary of the United States to China, and the Minister and Commissioner Extraordinary, Tsiyeng of the Imperial House, etc., General of the Trade and Foreign Intercourse of the Five Ports, etc. This treaty has been ratified by the Chinese, as well as by the American government, and is therefore in full force and operation. We have now obtained an official copy, which we publish below, for permanent record and future reference. The tariff of duties to be levied on imported and exported merchandise, at the five ports, viz: Canton, Amoy, Fuchow, Ningpo, and Shanghai, which accompanies the treaty, will be published in the Merchants' Magazine for February, 1846.

THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA AND THE TA TSING EMPIRE

Desiring to establish firm, lasting, and sincere friendship between the two nations, have resolvèd to fix, in a manner clear and positive, by means of a treaty or general convention of peace, amity, and commerce, the rules which shall in future be mutually observed in the intercourse of their respective countries: For which most desirable object, the President of the United States has conferred full powers on their commissioner, Caleb Cushing, Envoy Extraordinary, and Minister Plenipotentiary of the United States to China; and the august sovereign of the Ta Tsing empire, on his Minister and Commissioner Extraordinary, Tsiyeng, of the imperial house, a vice guardian of the heir apparent, governor general of the Two Kwangs, and supreintendent general of the trade and foreign intercourse of the five ports.

And the said commissioners, after having exchanged their said full powers, and duly considered the premises, having agreed to the following articles:

ART. I. There shall be a perfect, permanent, universal peace, and a sincere and cordial amity, between the United States of America on the one part, and the Ta Tsing empire on the other part, and between their people, respectively, without exception of persons or places.

ART. II. Citizens of the United States resorting to China for the purposes of commerce, will pay the duties of import and export prescribed in the tariff, which is fixed by, and made a part of this treaty. They shall in no case be subject to other or higher duties than are, or shall be required of the people of any other nation whatever. Fees and charges of every sort are wholly abolished; and officers of the revenue, who may be guilty of exaction, shall be punished according to the laws of China. If the Chinese government desire to modify in any respect the said tariff, such modifications shall be made only in consultation with consuls or other functionaries thereto duly authorized in behalf of the United States, and with consent thereof. And if additional advantages or privileges, of whatever description, be conceded hereafter by China to any other nation, the United States, and the citizens thereof, shall be entitled thereupon to a complete, equal, and impartial participation in the same.

ART. III. The citizens of the United States are permitted to frequent the five ports of Kwangchow, Amoy, Fuchow, Ningpo, and Shanghai, and to reside with their families and trade there; and to proceed at pleasure with their vessels and merchandise to and from any foreign port, and either of the said five ports to any other of them. But said vessels shall not unlawfully enter the other ports of China, nor carry on a clandestine and fraudulent trade along the coasts thereof. And any vessel belonging to a citizen of the United States which violates this provision, shall, with her cargo, be subject to confiscation to the Chinese government.

ART. IV. For the superintendence and regulation of the concerns of the citizens of the United States doing business at the said five ports, the government of the United States may appoint consuls or other officers at the same, who shall be duly recognised as such

by the officers of the Chinese government, and shall hold official intercourse and correspondence with the latter, either personal or in writing, as occasions may require, on terms of equality and reciprocal respect. If disrespectfully treated, or aggrieved in any way by the local authorities, said officers on the one hand shall have right to make representation of the same to the superior officers of the Chinese government, who shall see that full inquiry and strict justice be had in the premises; and, on the other hand, the said consuls will carefully avoid all acts of unnecessary offence to, or collision with the officers and people of China.

ART. V. At each of the said five ports, citizens of the United States lawfully engaged in commerce, shall be permitted to import from their own or any other ports into China, and sell there, and purchase therein, and export to their own or any other ports, all manner of merchandise, of which the importation or exportation is not prohibited by this treaty; paying the duties which are prescribed by the tariff hereinbefore established, and no other charges whatsoever.

ART. VI. Whenever any merchant vessel belonging to the United States shall enter either of the said five ports for trade, her papers shall be lodged with the consul, or person charged with affairs, who will report the same to the commissioner of customs; and tonnage duty shall be paid on said vessel, at the rate of five mace per ton, if she be over one hundred and fifty tons burden; and one mace per ton, if she be of the burden of one hundred and fifty tons or under, according to the amount of her tonnage, as specified in the register; said payment to be in full of the former charges of measurement and other fees, which are wholly abolished. And if any vessel, which, having anchored at one of the said ports, and there to pay tonnage duty, shall have occasion to go to any other of the said ports to complete the disposal of her cargo, the consul, or person charged with affairs, will report the same to the commissioner of customs, who, on the departure of the said vessel, will note in the port clearance that the tonnage duties have been paid, and report the same to the other custom-houses; in which case, on entering another port, the said vessel will only pay duty there on her cargo, but shall not be subject to the payment of tonnage duty a second time.

ART. VII. No tonnage duty shall be required on boats belonging to citizens of the United States, employed in the conveyance of passengers, baggage, letters, and articles of provision, or others not subject to duty, to or from any of the five ports. All cargo boats, however, conveying merchandise subject to duty, shall pay the regular tonnage duty of one mace per ton, provided they belong to citizens of the United States, but not if hired by them from subjects of China.

ART. VIII. Citizens of the United States, for their vessels bound in, shall be allowed to engage pilots, who will report said vessels at the passes, and take them into port; and, when the lawful duties have all been paid, they may engage pilots to leave port. It shall also be lawful for them to hire, at pleasure, servants, compradors, linguists, and writers, and passage or cargo boats, and to employ laborers, seamen, and persons for whatever necessary service, for a reasonable compensation, to be agreed on by the parties, or settled by application to the consular officer of their government, without interference on the part of the local officers of the Chinese government.

ART. IX. Whenever merchant vessels belonging to the United States shall have entered port, the supreintendent of customs, will, if he see fit, appoint custom-house officers to guard the said vessels, who may live on board the ship, or their own boats, at their convenience; but provision for the subsistence of said officers shall be made by the supreintendent of customs, and they shall not be entitled to any allowance from the vessel or owner thereof; and they shall be subject to suitable punishment for any exaction practised by them in violation of this regulation.

ART. X. Whenever a merchant vessel belonging to the United States shall cast anchor in either of said ports, the supercargo, master, or consignee, will, within forty-eight hours, deposit the ship's papers in the hands of the consul, or person charged with the affairs of the United States, who will cause to be communicated to the superintendent of customs a true report of the name and tonnage of such vessel, the names of her men, and the cargo on board; which being done, the supreintendent will give a permit for the discharge of her cargo.

And the master, supercargo, or consignee, if he proceed to discharge the cargo without such permit, shall incur a fine of five hundred dollars; and the goods so discharged without permit, shall be subject to forfeiture to the Chinese government. But if the master of any vessel in port desire to discharge a part only of the cargo, it shall be lawful for him to do so, paying duties on such part only, and to proceed with the remainder to any other ports; or, if the master so desire, he may, within forty-eight hours after the arrival of the vessel, but not after, decide to depart without breaking bulk; in which case he

will not be subject to pay tonnage or other duties or charges, until, on his arrival at another port, he shall proceed to discharge cargo, when he will pay duties on vessel and cargo, according to law. And the tonnage duties shall be held to be due after the expiration of said forty-eight hours.

ART. XI. The supreintendent-of customs, in order to the collection of the proper duties, will, on application made to him through the consul, appoint suitable officers, who shall proceed, in the presence of the captain, supercargo, or consignee, to make a just and fair examination of all goods in the act of being discharged for importation, or laden for exportation, on board any merchant vessel of the United States. And if dispute occur in regard to the value of goods subject to an ad-valorem duty, or in regard to the amount of tare, and the same cannot be satisfactorily arranged by the parties, the question may, within twenty-four hours, and not afterwards, be referred to the said consul to adjust with the supreintendent of customs.

ART. XII. Sets of standard balances, and also weights and measures duly prepared, stamped, and sealed, according to the standard of the custom-house at Canton, shall be delivered by the superintendents of customs to the consuls at each of the five ports, to secure uniformity, and prevent confusion in measures and weights of merchandise.

ART. XIII. The tonnage duty on vessels belonging to citizens of the United States shall be paid on their being admitted to entry. Duties of import shall be paid on the discharge of the goods, and duties of export on the landing of the same. When all such duties shall have been paid, and not before, the superintendent of customs shall give a port clearance, and the consul shall return the ship's papers, so that she may depart on her voyage. The duties shall be paid to the shroffs authorised by the Chinese government to receive the same in its behalf. Duties payable by merchants of the United States, shall be received either in sycee silver, or in foreign money, at the rate of exchange, as ascertained by the regulations now in force. And imported goods, on their resale or transit in any part of the empire, shall be subject to the imposition of no other duty than they are accustomed to pay at the date of this treaty.

ART. XIV. No goods on board any merchant vessel of the United States in port, are to be transhipped to another vessel, unless there be particular occasion therefor; in which case, the occasion shall be certified by the consul to the superintendent of customs, who may appoint officers to examine into the facts, and permit the transhipment. And if any goods be transhipped without such application, inquiry, and permit, they shall be subject to be forfeited to the Chinese government.

ART. XV. The former limitation of the trade of foreign nations to certain persons appointed at the Canton government, and commonly called Hong merchants, having been abolished, citizens of the United States, engaged in the purchase or sale of goods of import or export, are admitted to trade with any and all subjects of China, without distinction; they shall not be subject to any new limitations, nor impeded in their business by monopolies or other injurious restrictions.

ART. XVI. The Chinese government will not hold itself responsible for any debts which may happen to be due from subjects of China to citizens of the United States, or for frauds committed by them; but citizens of the United States may seek redress in law; and on suitable representation being made to the Chinese local authorities, through the consul, they will cause due examination in the premises, and take all proper steps to compel satisfaction. But in case the debtor be dead, or without property, or have absconded, the creditor cannot be indemnified, according to the old system of the co-hong, so called. And if citizens of the United States be indebted to subjects of China, the latter may seek redress in the same way, through the consul, but without any responsibility for the debt on the part of the United States.

ART. XVII. Citizens of the United States residing or sojourning at any of the ports open to foreign commerce, shall enjoy all proper accommodation in obtaining houses and places of business, or in hiring sites from the inhabitants on which to construct houses and places of business, and also hospitals, churches, and cemeteries. The local authorities of the two governments shall select in concert the sites for the foregoing objects, having due regard to the feelings of the people in the location thereof; and the parties interested will fix the rent by mutual agreement, the proprietors, on the other hand, not demanding any exorbitant price, nor the merchants, on the other, unreasonably insisting on particular spots, but each conducting with justice and moderation. And any desecration of said cemeteries by subjects of China, shall be severely punished, according to law.

At the places of anchorage of the vessels of the United States, the citizens of the United States, merchants, seamen, or others sojourning there, may pass and repass in the immediate neighborhood; but they shall not, at their pleasure, make excursions into

the country, among the villages at large, nor shall they repair to public marts for the purpose of disposing of goods unlawfully, and in fraud of the revenue. And, in order to the preservation of the public peace, the local officers of government at each of the five ports, shall, in concert with the consuls, define the limits beyond which it shall not be lawful for citizens of the United States to go.

ART. XVIII. It shall be lawful for the officers or citizens of the United States to employ scholars and people of any part of China, without distinction of persons, to teach any of the languages of the empire, and to assist in literary labors; and the persons so employed, shall not, for that cause, be subject to any injury on the part either of the government or of individuals; and it shall in like manner be lawful for citizens of the United States to purchase all manner of books in China.

ART. XIX. All citizens of the United States in China, peaceably attending to their affairs, being placed on a common footing of amity and good-will with subjects of China, shall receive and enjoy, for themselves, and everything appertaining to them, the special protection of the local authorities of government, who shall defend them from insult, or injury of any sort on the part of the Chinese. If their dwellings or property be threatened or attacked by mobs, incendiaries, or other violent or lawless persons, the local officers, on requisition of the consul, will immediately despatch a military force to disperse the rioters, and will apprehend the guilty individuals, and punish them with the utmost rigor of the law.

ART. XX. Citizens of the United States who may have imported merchandise into any of the free ports of China, and paid the duty thereon, if they desire to re-export the same, in part or in whole, to any other of the said ports, shall be entitled to make application, through their consul, to the superintendent of customs, who, in order to prevent frauds on the revenue, shall cause examination to be made by suitable officers, to see that the duties paid on such goods as entered on the custom-house books correspond with the representation made, and that the goods remain with their original marks unchanged, and shall then make a memorandum in the port clearance of the goods, and the amount of duties paid on the same, and deliver the same to the merchant; and shall also certify the facts to the officers of customs of the other ports; all which being done, on the arrival in port of the vessel in which the goods are laden, and everything being found, on examination there, to correspond, she shall be permitted to break bulk, and land the said goods, without being subject to the payment of any additional duty thereon. But, if on such examination, the superintendent of customs shall detect any fraud on the revenue in the case, then the goods shall be subject to forfeiture and confiscation to the Chinese government.

ART. XXI. Subjects of China, who may be guilty of any criminal act towards citizens of the United States, shall be arrested and punished by the Chinese authorities according to the laws of China; and citizens of the United States, who may commit any crime in China, shall be subject to be tried and punished only by the consul, or other public functionary of the United States thereto authorized, according to the laws of the United States. And, in order to the prevention of all controversy and disaffection, justice shall be equitably and impartially administered on both sides.

ART. XXII. Relations of peace and amity between the United States and China being established by this treaty, and the vessels of the United States being admitted to trade freely to and from the five ports of China open to foreign commerce, it is further agreed, that in case at any time hereafter, China should be at war with any foreign nation whatever, and for that cause should exclude such nation from entering her ports, still the vessels of the United States shall not the less continue to pursue their commerce in freedom and security, and to transport goods to and from the ports of the belligerent parties, full respect being paid to the neutrality of the flag of the United States; provided, that the said flag shall not protect vessels engaged in the transportation of officers or soldiers in the enemy's service; nor shall said flag be fraudulently used to enable the enemy's ships, with their cargoes, to enter the ports of China; but all such vessels so offending, shall be subject to forfeiture and confiscation by the Chinese government.

ART. XXIII. The consuls of the United States at each of the five ports open to foreign trade, shall make, annually, to the respective governor general thereof, a detailed report of the number of vessels belonging to the United States which have entered and left said ports during the year, and of the amount and value of goods imported or exported in said vessels, for transmission to, and inspection of the board of revenue.

ART. XXIV. If citizens of the United States have special occasion to address any communication to the Chinese local officers of the government, they shall submit the same to their consul, or other officer, to determine if the language be proper and respectful, and the matter just and right; in which event, he shall transmit the same to the appro-

priate authorities, for their consideration and action in the premises. In like manner, if subjects of China have special occasion to address the consul of the United States, they shall submit the communication to the local authorities of their own government, to determine if the language be respectful and proper, and the matter just and right; in which case, the said authorities will transmit the same to the consul or other officer for his consideration and action in the premises. And if controversies arise between citizens of the United States and subjects of China, which cannot be amicably settled otherwise, the same shall be examined and decided conformably to justice and equity, by the public officers of the two nations acting in conjunction.

ART. XXV. All questions in regard to rights, whether of property or person, arising between citizens of the United States in China, shall be subject to the jurisdiction, and regulated by the authorities of their own government. And all controversies occurring in China, between citizens of the United States and subjects of any other government, shall be regulated by the treaties existing between the United States and such governments respectively, without interference on the part of China.

ART. XXVI. Merchant vessels of the United States, lying in the waters of the five ports of China open to foreign commerce, will be under the jurisdiction of the officers of their own government, who, with the masters and owners thereof, will manage the same without control on the part of China. For injuries done to the citizens or the commerce of the United States by any foreign power, the Chinese government will not hold itself bound to make reparation. But if the merchant vessels of the United States, while within the waters over which the Chinese government exercises jurisdiction, be plundered by robbers or pirates, then the Chinese local authorities, civil and military, on receiving information thereof, will arrest the said robbers or pirates, and punish them according to law, and will cause all the property which can be recovered to be placed in the hands of the nearest consul, or other officer of the United States, to be by him restored to the true owner. But, if by reason of the extent of territory and numerous population of China, it should, in any case, happen that the robbers cannot be apprehended, or the property only in part recovered, then the law will take its course in regard to the local authorities; but the Chinese government will not make indemnity for the goods lost.

ART. XXVII. if any vessel of the United States shall be wrecked or stranded on the coast of China, and be subject to plunder or other damage, the proper officers of the government, on receiving information of the fact, will immediately adopt measures for their relief and security; and the persons on board shall receive friendly treatment, and be enabled at once to repair to the most convenient of the free ports, and shall enjoy all facilities for obtaining supplies of provisions and water. And if a vessel shall be forced, in whatever way, to take refuge in any other port than one of the free ports, then in like manner the persons on board shall receive friendly treatment, and the means of safety and security.

ART. XXVIII. Citizens of the United States, their vessels and property, shall not be subject to any embargo; nor shall they be seized or forcibly detained for any pretence of the public service; but they shall be suffered to prosecute their commerce in quiet, and without molestation or embarrassment.

ART. XXIX. The local authorities of the Chinese government will cause to be apprehended all mutineers and deserters from on board the vessels of the United States in China, and will deliver them up to the consuls or other officers for punishment. And if criminals, subjects of China, take refuge in the houses, or on board the vessels of citizens of the United States, they shall not be harbored or concealed, but shall be delivered up to justice, on due requisition by the Chinese local officers addressed to those of the United States.

The merchants, seamen, and other citizens of the United States, shall be under the superintendence of the appropriate officers of their government. If individuals of either nation commit acts of violence and disorder, use arms to the injury of others, or create disturbances endangering life, the officers of the two governments will exert themselves to enforce order, and to maintain the public peace by doing impartial justice in the premises.

ART. XXX. The superior authorities of the United States and China, in corresponding together, shall do so in terms of equality, and in the form of mutual communication (*chau hwui.*) The consuls, and the local officers, civil and military, in corresponding together, shall likewise employ the style and form of mutual communication (*chau hwui.*) When inferior officers of the one government address superior officers of the other, they shall do so in the style and form of memorial (*shin chin.*) Private individuals, in addressing superior officers, shall employ the style of petition (*pin ching.*) In no case shall any terms or style be suffered which shall be offensive or disrespectful to either

party. And it is agreed that no present, under any pretext or form whatever, shall ever be demanded of the United States by China, or of China by the United States.

ART. XXXI. Communications from the government of the United States to the court of China, shall be transmitted through the medium of the imperial commissioner charged with the superintendence of the concerns of foreign nations with China, or through the governor-general of the Liang Kwang, that of Min and Cheh, or that of the Liang Kiang.

ART. XXXII. Whenever ships of war of the United States, in cruising for the protection of the commerce of their country, shall arrive at any of the ports of China, the commanders of said ships, and the superior local authorities of government, shall hold intercourse together in terms of equality and courtesy, in token of the friendly relations of their respective nations. And the said ships of war shall enjoy all suitable facilities on the part of the Chinese government in the purchase of provisions, procuring water, and making repairs, if occasion require.

ART. XXXIII. Citizens of the United States, who shall attempt to trade clandestinely with such of the ports of China as are not open to foreign commerce, or shall trade in opium, or any other contraband article of merchandise, shall be subject to be dealt with by the Chinese government, without being entitled to any countenance or protection from that of the United States; and the United States will take measures to prevent their flag from being abused by the subjects of other nations, as a cover for the violation of the laws of the empire.

ART. XXXIV. When the present convention shall have been definitely concluded, it shall be obligatory on both powers, and its provisions shall not be altered without grave cause; but, inasmuch as the circumstances of the several ports of China open to foreign commerce are different, experience may show that inconsiderable modifications are requisite in those parts which relate to commerce and navigation; in which case, the two governments, will, at the expiration of twelve years from the date of said convention, treat amicably concerning the same, by means of suitable persons appointed to conduct such negotiation.

And, when ratified, this treaty shall be faithfully observed in all its parts by the United States and China, and by every citizen and subject of each. And no individual state of the United States can appoint or send a minister to China, to call in question the provisions of the same.

The present treaty of peace, amity, and commerce, shall be ratified and approved by the president of the United States, by and with the advice and consent of the senate thereof, and by the august sovereign of the Ta Tsing empire; and the ratification shall be exchanged within eighteen months from the date of the signature thereof, or sooner if possible.

In faith whereof, we, the respective plenipotentaries of the United States of America, and of the Ta Tsing empire, as aforesaid, have signed and sealed these presents.

Done at Wang Hiya, this third day of July, in the year of our Lord Jesus Christ one thousand eight hundred and forty-four; and of Taou Kwang the twenty-fourth year, fifth month, and eighteenth day.

C. CUSHING. TAIYENG.

## MEXICAN COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

In the Diario of October 1st., 1845, we find the official promulgation of the new tariff of Mexico. The details of this tariff were published in the Merchants' Magazine for December, 1845, (Vol. 13, No. 6, page 566,) but the following articles have since been added, and we therefore place them on record for the benefit of commercial men engaged in the Mexican trade:—

ART. I. All vessels of whatsoever nation, that shall be on terms of friendship with the Mexican nation, notwithstanding no special treaty of commerce shall have been ratified between them, shall be admitted to all those ports open for foreign commerce. The captain or supercargo, as well as the muniment and cargo of said vessel, shall be held subject to the prescribed laws for the collection of duties, and to all penalties existing at the time of their arrival, from the very moment of their anchorage in the waters of the port.

ART. II. Vessels coming from foreign ports, being other than national vessels, cannot be admitted at any other port save that to which they may be consigned. If they do so, (save under the 72d article of this enactment,) the vessel as well as her cargo, shall be considered forfeited. All the surplusages of the cargo over that manifested, will be liable to the penalty of the 84th article, being considered in the light of contraband.

ART. III. The following are the ports which are open to the entrance of foreign vessels: Gulf of Mexico, Sisal, Campeachy, Tobasco, Vera Cruz, Tampico, Matamoras, (Mata-

gorda, Velasco, and Galveston, when they shall have returned to the obedient control of the supreme government.)

On the Pacific Ocean—Acapulco, San Blas, and Mazatlan.

In the gulf of California—Guayama, and Montery.

ART. IV. In case any of the above mentioned ports shall be occupied by forces not in obedience to the supreme government of Mexico, it shall remain shut, not only to foreign commerce, but also to coasting vessels, under the terms provided by the decree of the 22d February, 1832.

# NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

## TEIGNMOUTH HARBOR LIGHTHOUSE.

Notice is hereby given, that the Lighthouse which has been for some time past in the course of erection on the south-west end of a certain place called the Den, at Teignmouth, in the county of Devon, and on the northern side of the entrance to the harbour of Teignmouth, under the direction of the Teignmouth Harbour and River Teign Improvement Commissioners, is now completed, and that the light therein, with the sanction of the Trinity Board, will be first exhibited on the evening of Saturday, the 1st day of November, 1845, from sunset to sunrise.

The light, which will be of brilliant gas, and will appear red in all directions, will be fixed and burn at an elevation of 31 feet 2 inches above the level of high water mark at ordinary spring tides.

By Compass bearings, Hope's or Bod's Nose bears S. by W. ½ W. distant 6 miles, and Streight Point near the entrance to Exmouth Harbor, E. by N. also distant 6 miles.

## HARBOR LIGHTS OF SLIPSHAVN.

The following notice of the Harbor Light of Slipshavn, at the entrance of the Gulf of Nyeborg, in the Great Belt, is dated at the Danish Hydrographic Office, Admiralty.

The Danish government has announced, that a harbor light is now established on the battery of Slipshavn, near Slipsodde Point, at the entrance of the Gulf of Nyeborg. The light is fixed; its elevation above the level of the sea, is 19 feet, and it may be seen clear of the land of Knudshead, on the bearing of E. ½ S. magnetic, and round about by the southward to N. by E. ½ E.

## ALDBRO' RIDGE BUOY.

The following notice to mariners and navigators, is published under date of Trinity House, London, 22nd July, 1845:

The Ridge off Aldbro' having grown up in an E. N. E. direction, the buoy thereof has been moved about two cables' length to the eastward, and now lies in four fathoms at low water, spring tides, with the following marks and compass bearings, viz: Oxford Church and Castle, in line W. ½ N. A small red tiled house, being the eastern-most house but one, at Slauden, on with a remarkable grove of trees N. ½ W. Oxford light-house W. S. W; Aldbro' church N. ¼ E.; Aldbro' Knapes buoy E. ½ S.

## BEARINGS OF A ROCK NEAR MONTE VIDEO.

Bearings of a rock not visible, but seen breaking at intervals only, by her Majesty's ship Comus, in August, 1845, on which the French brig Sophie, and the British brig Jonathan, were wrecked, marked in the Admiralty chart, as seen by her Majesty's ship Ranger, in 1827. Lat. 34 30 S., long. 53 3 W. Bears N.N.E. from the Great Castillo Rock, 5 miles off the shore. Mark, to avoid it is by keeping the Great Castillo Rock, which appears like a ship under sail, open to the eastward of the smaller and southernmost one.

## SUNKEN WRECK OFF DUNNOSE.

A letter has been received at Lloyd's from the Admiralty, announcing that the wreck of a small vessel had been fallen in with south of Dunnose, by Commander Sherringham, of her Majesty's steamer Dasher. Bearings: St. Catherine's light-house, N. 58 W., 8 miles; Ashleydown Sea Lark, N 2 W., N. 22 30 E., 6¼ miles; 4¾ miles from the nearest point of Dunnose.

# RAILROAD, CANAL AND STEAMBOAT STATISTICS.

## RAILROADS IN EUROPE AND AMERICA.

From the returns recently completed by order of the British Parliament from documents in the possession of the Board of Trade, and other public departments, it appears that the total amount of capital that has been expended in the construction of railways in different countries, stood as follows at the close of 1843 :—

| | Miles. | Amount. | Av. per mile. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Great Britain,..... | 2,069½ | £64,238,630 | £31,048 |
| Belgium,..... | 343 | 5,872,160 | 17,120 |
| France,..... | 552 | 10,276,000 | 18,617 |
| Germany,..... | 1,997½ | 15,500,000 | 7,500 |
| America,..... | 3,688 | 17,702,400 | 4,800 |
| Total,..... | 8,650 | £113,589,190 | £13,131 |

For railways in actual progress in Great Britain, an estimated capital of £74,407,520 was raising in order to construct 3,543 miles of lines, sanctioned by Acts of 1844 and 1845. In France £44,866,970 for new lines extending over 2,410 miles. In Germany, £18,000,000 for 2,347½ miles; and in America, £26,995,000 for 5,624 miles. This calculation shows that England contributes £138,646,150 out of the whole capital of £277,858,850, expended and expending, or exactly 50 per cent, the length of the projected railways being 5,612½ miles in England, out of the grand total of 22,574½ miles, or close upon 25 per cent of their united lengths.

## BRITISH STEAM VESSELS.

The British Government has lately caused to be published a statement of the number and tonnage of the mercantile sailing and steam vessels, belonging to the several ports of that country. The number of the last description of vessels has greatly increased within the last seven years, and the tonnage in a still greater proportion. The number and tonnage of the several classes of vessels at the two periods were as follows :—

| | Number. | Tonnage. |
|---|---|---|
| Sailing vessels in 1837..... | 23,000 | 2,650,000 |
| " " 1844..... | 23,116 | 2,931,000 |
| Steam vessels in 1837..... | 620 | 69,800 |
| " " 1844..... | 900 | 114,000 |

This last number of vessels is supposed to be of a collective power of 70,000 horses. There are 390 vessels of less than 50 tons burthen, and 510 above that size, the latter averaging 204 tons. Of these vessels, 679 are owned in England, 137 in Scotland, and 84 in Ireland. Vessels owned in the colonies are, of course, not included. These are 69 in number. There are belonging to the port of London 260 steam vessels, to Newcastle 147, Liverpool 45, Bristol 27, Hull 25, Sunderland 23, Southampton 22, 70 in Glasgow, 36 in Dublin, &c. The whole number of steam vessels belonging to the French commercial marine is only 110. The French military marine is equal to the English, in the number and tonnage of vessels.

## APPLICATION OF THE STEAM WHISTLE.

One of the most common causes of the explosion of steam-boilers has been the want of a sufficiency of water in the boiler at the time that the heat underneath was very large. In many instances the deficiency of water has resulted from the negligence of the attendant engineer, combined with the fact that no alarm was given, previous to the moment of explosion, of the exact state of the water in the boiler. Happily an efficient and simple exponent of the depth of water in the boiler at the time of working, and which act as a powerful alarum in case of danger, has just been applied to the steam-boilers at one of the largest manufacturing establishments in the neighborhood of Leeds in England. By affixing a small pipe in communication with the interior of a boiler at that point below which it is well known to be unsafe to allow the water to be consumed

in the generation of steam, and at the top of such tube putting one of the common whistles that are attached to the railway locomotive engines, a very efficient alarum, as we have said, is formed; for as soon as the water within the boiler has been consumed below the point where the pipe enters the boiler, the steam will rush up the pipe, and thence into the whistle, giving a timely warning of the deficiency of water in the boiler.

## CLOSING OF THE NAVIGATION OF THE HUDSON RIVER.

The following table shows the time, in each year, from 1831 to 1845, of the opening and closing of the Hudson river, and the number of days it remained closed:—

| Winters. | River closed. | River opened. | Days closed. |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1831–2,..... | Dec. 5, 1831. | March 25, 1832. | 111 |
| 1832–3,..... | Dec. 21, 1832. | March 21, 1833. | 88 |
| 1833–4,..... | Dec. 13, 1833. | Feb'y 23, 1834. | 73 |
| 1834–5,..... | Dec. 15, 1834. | March 25, 1835. | 100 |
| 1835–6,..... | Nov. 30, 1835. | April 4, 1836. | 125 |
| 1836–7,..... | Dec. 7, 1836. | March 28, 1837. | 111 |
| 1837–8,..... | Dec. 14, 1837. | March 19, 1838. | 91 |
| 1838–9,..... | Nov. 25, 1838. | March 21, 1839. | 116 |
| 1839–40,..... | Dec. 18, 1839. | Febr'y 21, 1840. | 65 |
| 1840–1,..... | Dec. 5, 1840. | March 24, 1841. | 109 |
| 1841–2,..... | Dec. 19, 1841. | Febr'y 4, 1842. | 47 |
| 1842–3,..... | Nov. 28, 1842. | April 13, 1843. | 135 |
| 1843–4,..... | Dec. 10, 1843. | March 18, 1844. | 98 |
| 1844–5,..... | Dec. 17, 1844. | Febr'y 24, 1845. | 65 |
| 1845–6,..... | Dec. 3, 1845. | | |

## OPENING AND CLOSING OF THE NEW YORK CANALS.

The following table shows the date of the opening and closing the canals, and the number of days of navigation in each year, for the last twenty-two years, from 1824 to 1845 inclusive:

| Years. | Navigation opened. | Navigation closed. | No. days of Nav. | Years. | Navigation opened. | Navigation closed. | No. days of Nav. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1824..... | April 30 | Dec. 4 | 219 | 1835..... | April 15 | Nov. 30 | 230 |
| 1825..... | " 12 | " 5 | 238 | 1836..... | " 25 | " 26 | 216 |
| 1826..... | " 20 | " 18 | 243 | 1837..... | " 20 | Dec. 9 | 234 |
| 1827..... | " 22 | " 18 | 241 | 1838..... | " 12 | Nov. 25 | 228 |
| 1828..... | Mar. 27 | " 20 | 269 | 1839..... | " 20 | Dec. 16 | 241 |
| 1829..... | May 2 | " 17 | 210 | 1840..... | " 20 | " 3 | 228 |
| 1830..... | April 20 | " 17 | 242 | 1841..... | " 22 | Nov. 30 | 221 |
| 1831..... | " 16 | " 1 | 230 | 1842..... | " 20 | " 28 | 222 |
| 1832..... | " 25 | " 21 | 241 | 1843..... | May 1 | " 30 | 214 |
| 1833..... | " 19 | " 13 | 238 | 1844..... | April 15 | " 26 | 222 |
| 1834..... | " 17 | " 12 | 240 | 1845..... | " 15 | " 29 | 225 |

## COMMERCE OF THE DISMAL SWAMP CANAL.

PRODUCE PASSED INWARD THROUGH THE DISMAL SWAMP CANAL, DURING THE YEAR ENDING 30TH SEPTEMBER, 1845.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Cotton,.....bales | 6,532 | Lard,.....kegs | 842 |
| Fish,.....bbls. | 43,864 | Corn,.....bushels | 1,003,035 |
| Naval stores,..... | 29,526 | Flax-seed, ..... | 7,795 |
| Spirits,..... | 63 | Wheat,..... | 58,817 |
| Spirits turpentine,..... | 807 | Peas,..... | 26,611 |
| Bacon,.....cwts. | 1,664 | Potatoes,..... | 19,445 |
| Mast timber,.....cubic feet | 7,653 | 2 ft. Shingles,.....cubic feet | 1,378,510 |
| Other timber,..... | 86,415 | Building do.,..... | 26,943,880 |
| Plank and scantling,..... | 281,692 | Garden pales,..... | 17,100 |
| Pipe staves,..... | 711,670 | Coopers' bolts, ..... | 2,950 |
| Hogshead do.,..... | 6,002,620 | Coopers' staves,..... | 284,730 |
| Barrel do.,..... | 219,110 | Fence rails,..... | 14,710 |
| Long Shingles,..... | 2,662,500 | Wood,.....cords | 8,076 |

# MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

## COMMERCE A THEME FOR THE POET.*

We had the pleasure of attending the twenty-fifth anniversary meeting of the Mercantile Library Association of Boston, which took place on the evening of the 25th October 1845. The address and poem were delivered at the "Odeon," formerly known as the Boston, or Federal-street Theatre. That spacious building, which will accommodate about three thousand persons, was densely crowded with the wealth, beauty, and fashion of the "Literary Emporium;" and the address of the Hon. Robert C. Winthrop, which occupied nearly two hours in the delivery, as well as the poem of the Rev. R. C. Waterston, were listened to with all that interest and enthusiasm which characterises an assembly of Bostonians, particularly when they attempt a popular "notion." But Boston is a great city—and, as Mr. Winthrop said in his address, and very truly—a city set on a hill; yes, on three hills—and it cannot be hid. And, as he further modestly adds, "Let others praise us, and not our own mouths—strangers, and not our own lips," we will say what may, perhaps, be considered a work of supererogation, that Boston possesses, in an "eminent degree," all the resources of true greatness, in her noble men and women; in her unsurpassed system of free schools, and in the number and excellence of her philanthropic institutions. The blind, the lame, the deaf and the dumb, the widow and the orphan, find among the "notions" of that goodly city an asylum, where their wants are "supplied according to their several necessities." The truth is, the merchants and business men of Boston are industrious and enterprising; and "what their charity impairs, they save by prudence in their affairs." There is, perhaps, no city in the world with a population so large, in which there are so few destitute of the common every-day necessaries of life, or where there is less squalid poverty.

But our object was to introduce a few extracts of a commercial character from the poem of Mr. Waterston, in which are some fine passages; although, as a whole, it does not exhibit any very extraordinary marks of poetic fire or genius. The lines flow smoothly, but the "rhyming words," to quote from the Boston Transcript, "are too often repeated, as if substitutes could not come when they were wanted." The sentiments of the poem are at once elevated and pure; and although some may think the allusion to Perkins, Appleton, and Lawrence—names as familiar as the pursuit in which they have amassed fortunes, which they so liberally impart to philanthropic objects—in bad taste, especially as two of those gentlemen were present, we cannot resist the temptation of quoting the passage, and also a happy allusion to the poet Charles Sprague, Cashier of the Globe Bank, in Boston:—

"Here magic Art her mighty power reveals,
Moves the slow beam, and plies her thousand wheels;
Through ponderous looms the rapid shuttle flies,
And weaves the web which shines with varied dyes;
Here gliding cars, like shooting meteors run,
The mighty shuttles binding States in one!
And iron steam-ships, that make ocean seem
As if the sea had dwindled to a stream;
With smoke above, and weltering fires below,
That speed through calms as when tornadoes blow!
Here Commerce spreads on every sea her sail,
And ploughs the wave before each passing gale;

* A poem, delivered before the Boston Mercantile Library Association, at their twenty-fifth anniversary, October 18th, 1845, by the Rev. R. C. Waterston.

Here, 'mid the city's hum, the Merchant stands,
And holds the thread connecting distant lands;
He speaks the word—at his commanding will,
The thousand wheels of industry are still!
He speaks the word—and at his will, once more,
The sails of Commerce whiten every shore!

But does the Merchant, as his way he wends,
Ponder on nought but trade and dividends?
Say, must the Son of Traffic never hold
Converse with aught but that which brings him gold?
Shall he no treasure but his silver heed?
Shall he no volume but his leger read?

Look ye abroad, and think of one whose name
Stands high enrolled among the heirs of fame;
Roscoe—the Scholar—Patriot—and Sage—
Friend of his race, and Genius of his age;
'Midst walks of business, it was his to scan
The laws of nature, and the rights of man;
His noble soul no narrow view confined,
He toiled for truth, and labored for mankind:
Why may not coming time look back to you,
And show the world *we* have our Roscoes too?
* * * * * *
Who shall deny we have among us, now,
Some who will wear the laurel on their brow?
Amidst their toils, to man and virtue true,
Firm as the rock, and pure as heavenly dew?

May not our land be termed enchanted ground,
Where, on bank-bills, a Poet's* name is found?
Where Poet's notes may pass for notes of hand,
And valued good long as the Globe shall stand?
The world can never quench that kindling fire,
Or break one string of that immortal lyre.
Sweet and more sweet its melting strains shall rise,
Till his rapt spirit seeks its native skies!
And must the Merchant be a child of pelf,
With thoughts and feelings centered all in self?
Think ye of those whose honored names now stand
As merchant-princes—nobles of the land!

The poor blind boy seems gifted now with sight,
His darkened mind is radiant with light.
How many a sire will drop a grateful tear,
As Perkins' name shall fall upon the ear!
And orphans, too, shall breathe a grateful prayer,
For one whose bounty they are called to share;
How many a heart hath found long wished-for rest,
Whom Appleton's munificence has blessed!
And last—not least—like evening's brilliant star,
The name of Lawrence sheds its beams afar.
What word is adequate to speak their fame,
What marble white enough to bear that name!
In these true men was Thought and Toil combined,
Care could not cloud, nor business cramp the mind!
May those who mingle in this festive hour,
Catch from their honored names new hope and power!"

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* Charles Sprague, Esq., Cashier of the Globe Bank, Boston.

## COMMERCE AND RESOURCES OF ALABAMA.

We cheerfully give place to the following letter from J. J. Pleasants, Esq., of Huntsville, Alabama, correcting an error we committed, on what we considered the best authority, that of a gentleman whose circumstances and general information, in regard to the commercial affairs of the United States, would usually render any statements he might make almost semi-official:

To the Editor of Merchants' Magazine:

Dear Sir,—In the November number of your excellent Magazine, I find you have committed a great error in your article "Trade and Commerce of Mobile, and the Resources of Alabama." You state that "the product of the northern district of the state finds a market chiefly in Savannah, Augusta, and Hamburg, Georgia, from which it is shipped to Europe, or northern ports."

Now, I think it quite improbable that there ever was a single bale of cotton forwarded from the northern district of Alabama to either of the markets designated. The cotton of North Alabama, is shipped, on the Tennessee river, to New Orleans. The receipts at that port for the commercial year, ending the 31st August, 1835, or as stated by you, viz: 984,616 bales; of which, 198,246 bales were from North Alabama, and Tennessee. Of this amount, it is probable that 60,000 or 70,000 bales went from North Alabama. The receipts at the port of Mobile we usually put down as the crop of the state of Alabama. That portion of Alabama cotton, which goes out of the Tennessee and Chattahoochee rivers, being considered about equal in amount to the receipts from the Tombigby, from Mississippi, at Mobile.

Being in the habit of placing a high estimate on the accuracy of the contents of your valuable journal, I take the liberty, as one of your readers and subscribers, to call your attention to the error, lest its correction may escape your notice. Your Serv't.

Huntsville, November 27th, 1845. J. J. Pleasants.

We have also received a letter from Mr. Peter A. Remsen, dated, Baltimore, December 5th, 1845, correcting what he calls "a wide mistake" in our account of the "trade of Mobile and Resources of Alabama," in calling the Alabama River the west branch, as he says "it is the east," and in saying that there is only five or six feet in the west side, and eleven in the east passage of the bay. He says "there is from 17 to 19 feet on the outer bar, and an equal number of feet for some five miles up the bay, over a large extent of anchorage ground, and then some fourteen feet of water to the bar, in its upper part, in which is eleven feet water, called 'Dog River Bar,' all correct." Our correspondent, who, we infer, is a ship-master, adds, "I merely mention these facts to have you *correct*, as I take all you say for gospel, unless I know to the contrary, as I did in the above case." A very rational faith in our fallible infallibility. We can ask no more. Now, if we were incorrect in this matter, and we presume our correspondent is satisfied that we were, we can only say, that we derived *our facts* from the new American edition of McCulloch's Gazeteer, generally considered good authority, re-edited in this country by Daniel Haskel, A. M. late President of the University of Vermont, who, we are informed, re-wrote every article pertaining to the United States, and was at great pains to procure the most recent and correct information. We aim at the utmost accuracy in our statistical details, and we shall ever feel grateful to have our friends point out any errors that may be committed in the pages of the Merchants' Magazine, that we may be able, as we are desirous of rendering all our statements authoritative.

## COAL, IRON, GOLD AND COPPER OF VIRGINIA.

Bituminous coal occurs at intervals over the tract of 35 miles from South Anna river, near its mouth, to the Appomattox. In some places the coal seam is forty-one feet thick. It is found in abundance within fifteen miles of the Richmond, Henrico, in Chesterfield, in Goochland, in Powhatan, on James river, and on the Tuckahoe. At Midlothian pit, in Chesterfield county, a shaft has been sunk seven hundred and twenty feet below the surface, and a seam of fine coal has been penetrated eleven feet. Iron is found

in abundance in various parts of the state. There are seven mines of it in Spottsylvania, near the junction of the Rappahannock and Rapidan rivers. Of gold mines, generally less valuable than iron, there are twelve in Goochland, fifteen in Orange, eleven in Culpepper, twenty-six in Spottsylvania, ten in Stafford, and six in Fauquier—total gold mines, eighty. There are also five copper mines in Fauquier. The mineral resources of Virginia are truly extensive and valuable, and we hope, ere long, that the intelligent citizens of that state will be aroused to an appreciation of the vast resources they possess, resources second to no state in the Union. We should be glad, if some one of her sons would furnish us with an article setting forth the vast resources of the "Old Dominion;" as we feel a deep interest in the social and industrial progress of every section of our wide spread Union.

## WOOLLEN MANUFACTURES IN THE UNITED STATES.

William H. Graham, of New-York, has published a volume entitled the "Statistics of the Woollen Manufactures of the United States," prepared by the "Proprietor of the Condensing Cards." The information it embodies, though simple, will be useful to merchants and manufacturers generally, as a sort of directory. It commences with Maine, and proceeds with a list of the establishments in each state engaged in Woollen Manufactures, with the names of the owner, firm or company; location; the number of condensing cards run by each, the kind and quality of the various fabrics made, etc. We only regret that the compiler has not given, at the close, a summary statistical view of the whole, as we should have been spared the trouble of running over nearly two-hundred pages for that purpose. On counting the names of factories in the several states, we find there are in Maine, 28; New Hampshire, 58; Vermont, 75; Rhode Island, 40; Connecticut, 109; New York, 313; Massachusetts, 141; New Jersey, 10; Pennsylvania, 101; Delaware, 4; Maryland, 16; Virginia, 18; Ohio, 79; Kentucky, 9; Indiana, 6; Michigan, 6; Illinois, 6; Wisconsin, 7; Missouri, 3; South Carolina, 1; Iowa, 2, North Carolina, 4; Tennessee, 2; Georgia, 3. According therefore to this volume, there are in the United States, 1,039 woollen manufactories.

## WHALE FISHERY AT THE HAWAIIAN ISLANDS.

There arrived at the various ports of the Hawaiian Islands, from Jan. 1st to Sept. 5th, 1845, 272 American whale ships; the whole number for the year will undoubtedly exceed 509 sail; of course some of the ships touch twice and a few three times, still the value of American capital visiting these islands is very great. During the year 1844, there were 459 sail reported at the Islands, manned by 13,200 seamen, and valued at $23,374,000. The great increase of this branch of our shipping at the Hawaiian Islands, is owing to the opening of the new fishing ground on the NW Coast. The service in that sea is very severe, however, as most of the whales are taken above the latitude of 60, where most of the time they are enveloped in dense fogs, or struggling against hard gales, yet our enterprising whalemen successfully overcome the great "Leviathan." In consequence of the density of the fogs, great numbers of whale are lost after being killed, for fear of losing the boats. The largest fare taken in 1844, was the Ontario, of Sag Harbor, 4,000 bbls, which, with the bone, was worth $52,000; and the most valuable, that of the California, Lawrence, N. B., 2,600 sperm, worth $78,000. This year the South America goes home with a two season cargo worth $95,000, undoubtedly the most valuable whale oil cargo that ever left the Pacific. The hardy and enterprising whalemen of the New England states seem to conquer all dificulties in their daring pursuits.

# THE BOOK TRADE.

1.—*The History of Silk, Cotton, Linen, Wool, and other Fibrous Substances; including Observations on Spinning, Dyeing, and Weaving, etc.* New York: Harper & Brothers.

The time is fast approaching, when the pen of the historian will be turned from the record of gigantic crimes, and their consequent miseries, to the peaceful annals of the industrial arts, and the great scientific and moral movements by which the race are to be regenerated, and brought into harmony with God and his laws. We look forward with a confiding trust, to the period, when the sword shall be exchanged for the pruning knife, and the millions that inhabit the globe shall form a God-like Unity. Then, in place of lofty spires and gilded domes, the arched heavens, lighted by the sun, and moon, and stars, shall become a fit temple of worship; and every heart shall express, with the lips and the life, the angelic announcement—glory to God in the highest, peace and good-will to man. Of the true history of mankind, only a few chapters have been written. The materials for supplying it have in good part perished in the lapse of time, or been trampled beneath the foot of the war-horse. But our author has made an effort to restore a portion of this history, and in this curious and instructive volume, he traces the progress of a few of those beneficent achievements of inventive genius, which minister to the personal convenience and comfort of mankind. The annals of silk, cotton, linen, wool, etc., and their manufacture from the earliest time, are here grouped into a systematic history, forming altogether a valuable specimen of the progressive literature of the 19th century. The work is copiously illustrated with well executed engravings.

2.—*Biographical and Critical Miscellanies.* By WILLIAM H. PRESCOTT, Author of "The History of Ferdinand and Isabella," "The Conquest of Mexico," etc. New York: Harper & Brothers.

This volume, published in the same elegant taste as marks that of Mr. Prescott's histories, and which harmonises so admirably with the polish and finished character of his style and carefully pruned luxuriance of thought, embraces selections from his contributions to the North American Review. The modest excuse of the author for their fancied defects, expressed in his preface, is entirely unnecessary, for he only can perceive deficiencies in what, to all critics, must seem purely graceful and beautiful. The papers embodied in the volume are, "The Memoirs of Charles Brockden Brown, the American Novelist," critical essays upon "The Asylum for the Blind," "Irving's Conquest of Granada," "Cervantes," "Sir Walter Scott," "Bancroft's United States," "Madame Calderon's Life in Mexico," "Maffere," "Italian Narrative Poetry," etc. An elegant portrait of the author enhances the value of a volume which should be considered one of the most priceless gems of American literature.

3.—*The Life of Mozart, including his Correspondence.* By EDWARD HOLMES, Author of a "Ramble among the Musicians of Germany." New York: Harper & Brothers, Publishers.

With the exception of a short biographical sketch, translated from the French, this is the first and only monument, in our tongue, to the memory and genius of the great composer and musician. It contains, in addition to much of his interesting correspondence, and other papers, a detailed account of his life, adventures and rise as an artist, and a discriminating sketch of his character, the peculiarities of which are happily illustrated by anecdotes. Many things of him, unknown even to his admirers, are here given to the world, and his biographer fully appreciating the artist, has yet, not like a flatterer, but with true independence spoken candidly of the faults of the man. It forms the fourth volume of the "Harper's New Miscellany."

4.—*Aids to English Composition, prepared for Students of all Grades, embracing Specimens and Examples of School and College Exercises, and most of the Higher Departments of English Composition, both in Prose and Verse.* By RICHARD GREEN PARKER, A. M. A new edition, with additions and improvements. New York: Harper & Brothers.

All who would perfect themselves in the art of composition by artificial methods, (a process to which we are not particularly partial,) will find this the best treatise yet published in our country. It embraces full and distinct rules, in addition to exercises from the most finished models and best authors, for practice, as well as much convenient information, not properly coming within the limits of the subject. It is sufficiently simplified for new beginners, and not wholly useless to those familiar with higher departments of English composition.

5.—*The Vigil of Faith, and other Poems.* By CHARLES FENNO HOFFMAN: 4th Edition. New York: Harper & Brothers

The characteristics of Mr. Hoffman's poetry seem to be a certain gracefulness, combined with a fanciful luxuriance; his songs are unsurpassed by any American poet in sentiment, metre and melody. Though finished, they have yet the marks of being produced without labor beyond the feeling and inspiration of the moment. Of his many fugitive productions, we have here collected, a delightful selection.

6.—*The Raven, and other Poems.* By EDGAR A. POE. Library of American Books, No. VIII. New York: Wiley & Putnam.

This is the second volume of Mr. Poe's productions that have appeared in Wiley & Putnam's American Library. The characteristics of his poetry are a quick, subtle conception, and a severe taste of what is harmonious in expression. Exhibiting all the nervous, impatient marks of true genius, an unbridled playfulness of fancy, it is, while seemingly riding havoc in thought, metre and harmony, restrained throughout by a skilful rein, that guides sentiment and style by well defined rules, never allowing it to border upon the ridiculous, or ill judged sublimity. This union of the faculties of a *critic* and *genius*, making cultivation a second nature, and unconsciously governing the style, is a rare gift and power in a writer. The passion and sentiment are also original, while the style has a fragmentary character, like the architecture of the ruins of Chiapas, where frescoes, and rude, but beautiful workmanship, are scattered about in the wildest profusion. The Raven is rather a production of artistic cleverness than genius, while the poems that follow breathe such pure passion, and are embodied in such beautiful imagery, and the etherial speculations given with so much descriptive, thought-awakening power, that we regret Mr. Poe should do aught else than write poetry.

7.—*Memoirs of Father Ripa, during Thirteen Year's Residence at the Court of Peking, in the service of the Emperor of China, with an Account of the Foundation of the College, for the Education of the Young Chinese, at Naples.* Selected and translated from the Italian, by FORTUNATI PRAUDI. Wiley & Putnam's Foreign Library, No. 5. New York: Wiley & Putnam.

This book, published at Naples in 1832, narrates the early conversion of its author, his entry into the Church, and subsequent mission to China, as Catholic priest; residence in the Court of the Celestial Emperor, where, after years spent in good and useful acts, he returned to Italy, and founded a college for the education of Chinese youth, at Naples. Father Ripa died during the last year, as the writer states, in a description of the present condition of the college. The religious customs of the Chinese are rather dwelt upon than other national peculiarities, and the writer unwittingly exposes some Popish humbugs, which certainly enhance the interest of the book.

8.—*Western Gleanings.* By Mrs. C. M. KIRKLAND, author of a "New Home." Library of American Books, No. VII. New York: Wiley & Putnam.

For the first time the *ci devant* "Mrs. Mary Clavers" comes before the public unmasked of her soubriquet, and gives us her healthy toned thoughts, and sketches of western life and society. Her "New Home", etc., has done much to idealize that section of the country. The secret of the success of this gifted writer has been the genial, pure and beautiful characteristics, temper and spirit exhibited, joined with a quick perception of whatever is remarkable in a character or a scene. Sentiment with her is seen only when regulated by good sense and taste, and then flowing out in sympathy with nature, or whatever is generous and noble. The "Land Fever," "Rustic Balls," "Bee-hunting," the "Rough Settler," "School-master and Village Belle," are described as they would appear to a cultivated and well balanced mind thrown among such scenes.

9.—*Life of Louis Prince of Conde, Surnamed the Great.* By LORD MAHON, in two parts. Wiley & Putnam's Library of Choice Reading, No's. 34 and 35. New York: Wiley & Putnam.

The period in which the Great Prince of Conde gained one of the proudest titles as a warrior, is the most interesting of French annals previous to the revolution. It was that following the reign of Henry of Navarre, and full of national as well as of religious struggles. Lord Mahon has embodied the most striking incidents in this biography, which was first written in French, without a view to publication, and now translated under his own superintendence and revision. It has all the merits of a good history and biography, detailing the plans of the hero in addition to striking incidents in the lives of eminent persons at the time. The style is rather condensed, yet clear, and full of rare historical incidents. The character of Cardinal Mazarin is well drawn, and the work is as good a history of state diplomacy as of military men, and chivalric heroism.

10.—*The Book of Christmas, descriptive of the Customs, Ceremonies, Traditions, Superstitions, Fun, Feeling, and Festivities of the Christmas Season.* By THOMAS K. HERVEY. Library of Choice Reading, No. XXXVIII. New York: Wiley & Putnam.

This is designed not merely as a book of amusement for Christmas time, but of descriptive information, for those who are ignorant of the origin and meaning of those holy-day observances which all know how to keep; of the early history of the festival, and ancient ceremonies and traditions connected with it. The rare tales of the "olden time," when wine and wassail reigned in "merrie England," and the beautiful sentiments called up by the associations which Irving has made familiar to us, and particularly the numerous facts of obscure points in her annals, will render it a pleasing companion to the firesides of those who venerate the past.

11.—*The Example of Washington Commended to the Young.* By Rev. JOSEPH ALDEN, D. D. New York: M. W. Dodd.

This little volume makes no pretentions to a regular narrative of the life of Washington; but rather sets forth those incidents which illustrate the prominent moral features of his character—the traits of a truly great man rather than the soldier. It is an exceedingly interesting and instructive volume.

12.—*Sketches of Modern Literature and Eminent Literary Men, (being a Gallery of Literary Portraits.)* By GEORGE GILFILLAN. Reprinted entire from the London edition. New York: D. Appleton & Co. Philadelphia: G. S. Appleton.

The principal literary men of whom sketches are here given, are Hazzlit, Shelley, De Quincy, Carlyle, Prof. Wilson, Campbell, Brougham, Coleridge, Emerson, Wordsworth, Lamb, Keats, Macauley, and Southey. They contain the author's opinions of their literary works, rather than biographical accounts, though some personal incidents are given. Judging from a perusal of a few of them, we should say the author's literary faith was bordering on the transcendental, and yet they exhibit a general and comprehensive acquaintance with English literature. It will be perceived that a critical sketch is given of but one American writer—Ralph Waldo Emerson, who is much admired by the author. In this view, however, of the noted Emerson, he glances at the state of American literature, and briefly refers to Edwards, Dwight, Brockden Brown, Cooper, John Neal, Moses Stuart, Daniel Webster, and Channing, who he numbers as the great names in our intellectual heraldry.

13.—*The Book of the Colonies; Comprising a History of the Colonies composing the United States, from the Discovery, in the Tenth Century, until the Commencement of the Revolutionary War.* Compiled from the best authorities, by JOHN FROST, LL. D., author of the "Book of the Army," and "Book of the Navy." New York: D. Appleton & Co. Philadelphia: G. S. Appleton.

In the present compilation, Dr. Frost has brought together, in a comprehensive and popular form, the leading events in the history of the colonies from the supposed discovery of the American continent by the Northmen, in the tenth century, to the breaking out of the revolutionary war. In connection with the Book of the Army and the Navy, prepared by the same gentleman, they form a review of the main current of history through the whole period of our colonial and national existence; while each of the volumes is a complete and distinct work, having its proper object and unity.

14.—*Sermons preached in the Chapel of Rugby School, with an Address before Confirmation.* By THOMAS ARNOLD, D. D., Head Monitor of Rugby School, Author of "The History of Rome," Lectures on "Modern History," etc. New York: D. Appleton, & Co. Philadelphia: G. S. Appleton.

Although the thirty discourses contained in this volume were addressed to the pupils of the Rugby School, and, therefore, designed for that "description of readers," others will doubtless be edified by the impressive obligations of duty, both moral and religious, interspersed throughout the whole series. The author was probably the most successful and useful educator of the present century, and although an honored member of a very conservative branch of the "Church of England," he was an enlightened and earnest reformer, and, withal, possessed a truly philanthropic and Catholic spirit.

15.—*The Book of Good Examples; Drawn from Authentic History and Biography; Designed to Illustrate the Beneficial Effects of Virtuous Conduct.* By JOHN FROST, LL. D., author of the "Book of the Colonies," "Book of the Army," and "Book of the Navy." New York: D. Appleton & Co. Philadelphia: George S. Appleton.

This volume is composed of anecdotes of men and women, in all ages and nations, who have displayed in their lives noble or virtuous traits of character. Deeds of virtue are here rendered attractive, and we are scarcely acquainted with a volume that we could more conscientiously recommend to the young. It is replete with examples, applicable to almost every circumstance and condition of life.

16.—*The Mass and Rubrics of the Roman Catholic Church. Translated into English.* With Notes and Remarks, by Rev. JOHN ROGERSON COTTER, A. M., author of "Questions on St. Matthew and other Gospels." New York: D. Appleton & Co. Philadelphia: George S. Appleton.

This, we believe, is the first English translation of the "entire mass, with its rubrics," of the Roman Catholic church. The translator is a Protestant, but it is believed that he has given a fair and impartial translation; and in his notes, he appears to have avoided all harsh and irritating language towards Catholic Christians.

17.—*The Attractions of the Cross; Designed to Illustrate the leading Truths, Obligations and Hopes of Christianity.* By GARDINER SPRING, D. D. New York: M. W. Dodd.

Dr. Spring holds a high rank among the Calvinistic divines in this country; and in the present volume he discusses, explains and enforces the distinguishing features of the popular theology in a clear, bold and earnest manner. There are passages in the volume, that will be inviting to some even, who are not of the same theological school, or are not interested in the doctrines which the author desires to illustrate and enforce. It forms a thick duodecimo volume of more than four hundred pages.

18.—*The Student of Blenheim Forest, or the Trials of a Convert.* By Mrs. ANN H. DORSEY. Baltimore: J. Murphy.

Mrs. Dorsey's object, as stated in her preface, is to illustrate some of the difficulties which those who embrace or profess the Catholic religion may encounter in the world; and at the same time it exhibits a pattern of that constancy and fortitude which a Christian should exercise under trials and persecutions. She has woven into the narrative several doctrines and practices of the Catholic church, which she thinks are misunderstood by persons out of her communion. It is an elegant volume as regards paper, printing and binding, and highly creditable to the taste of our esteemed friend the publisher.

19.—*The Complete Works of N. P. Willis.* New York: J. S. Redfield, Clinton Hall.

The publication of no volume can reflect more honor upon our literature than this. For the first time all Mr. Willis' works are before us in an elegant octavo volume, embellished with a fine portrait of the author, engraved for Graham's Magazine on steel, and dedicated to his editorial associate and friend General Morris. It contains all his prose works, viz: "Pencillings by the Way," "Letters from Under a Bridge," "High Life in Europe," "American Life," "Inklings of Adventure," "Loiterings of Travel," "Ephemera," the "Lecture on Fashion," with the "Sacred Poems," "Poems of Passion," "Miscellaneous Poems," "Lady Jane," and his two plays of "Tortesa the Usurer," and "Bianci Visconti." Save the "Ephemera," none of them require comment, for they have given their writer a deathless fame, and laurels which need not the breath of his friends to keep fresh and green. The "Ephemera," containing selections of paragraphs contributed to the Mirror, have that peculiar finish and individuality, that gives a permanency to papers only intended to record passing daily events, which, since Addison, none have exhibited. Who, of Willis' "parish" of admirers, on both sides of the Atlantic, will not rejoice for his sake and their own, that his productions can be now read together, and the results of his brilliant imagination, his fine genius, his taste, humor, *savoir faire* in literature, society, in every thing where God has given his noblemen a field for high attempting, are here clustered like diamonds and gems richly set, whose brilliancy dazzles all, and wearies none.

20.—*The Poetical Works of Percy Bysshe Shelley, First American Edition Complete, with some Remarks on the Poetical Faculty and its Influence on Human Destiny, embracing a Biographical and Critical Notice.* By G. G. Foster. New York: J. S. Redfield.

To speak of Shelley, or his poems—of his unlikeness to other poets, or other men—of his strange beauty in that loneness in which he stands—of his soaring genius mounting to the highest heaven, and in that fearful elevation fluttering and rejoicing at the dizziness, and anon descending into the abysses of our being, and bringing up the gold and jewels from the wrecks strewn there—sad, not that the world abused him, but that it was too far beneath him to deserve his teaching;—to dilate on these, would be, with our short limits, a mockery and profanation, and yet a luxury, which we leave to better pens and more fitting journals. Mr. Foster's admiration for Shelley's genius, is not an overwrought enthusiasm for his subject, but the earnest, genuine sympathy of a true man, with a kindred spirit. The critical portion exhibits a student's appreciation of their beauties; and, with the short notice of his life, this preface forms a rich interpreter of the treasures they usher us into, beyond. It is not out of place to commend the beautiful binding and pearly paper, with its clear, distinct print, (too small, perhaps,) for the volume richly deserves it.

21.—*The Dream, and other Poems.* By the Hon. Mrs. Norton. Francis' Cabinet Library of Choice Prose and Poetry.

22.—*A Child of the Islands, a Poem.* By the Hon. Mrs. Norton. Francis' Cabinet Library, etc., etc. New York: C. S. Francis, & Co.

These volumes, the first containing the recent miscellaneous poems of Mrs. Norton, and the second her poem written with reference to the young Prince of Wales, come to us in a very attractive form. Mrs. Norton's poetry has been much and justly admired for merits of its own partly, and partly perhaps from the interest connected with her personal sorrows and difficulties. The first named volume exhibits great versatility of poetical power, and the pieces most to be admired besides the "Dream," are the "Mother's Heart," "German Students' Love Song," "Twilight," and the "Dying Hour." The poem in the other volume, however, does, by far, the most credit to her genius and her heart. In that she makes the "Child of the Islands," a type of the fortunate class, and contrasts their brightness with the darkness of the lower; and the infant prince is made the subject, from his innocence, to foster a kindness of feeling between the higher and lower classes. The poem exhibits the philosophy and true sympathy of the author with the infirmities of human nature. It would be difficult to select works more appropriate, or better calculated to promote the high and holy aims of a true literature, than the volumes thus far embraced in the "Cabinet of Choice Prose and Poetry."

23.—*A Brief History of the Condition of Women, in Various Ages and Nations.* By L. Maria Child, author of "Philothea," "The Mother's Book," "Letters from New York," "Flowers for Children," etc., etc. Revised and corrected by the author. In two volumes. Francis' Cabinet Library. New York: C. J. Francis.

The popular author of this work, does not exhibit, as she states in her short preface, an essay upon woman's rights, or a philosophical investigation of what ought to be her social relations; but she gives an accurate, and for the magnitude of the subject, somewhat detailed history of the condition of woman, commencing with the Jewish, and following it down through the Babylonian, Carian, Trojan, and Syrian, to our own age and country. In addition to the characteristics of a nation or class, she gives many individual instances, which are in themselves interesting in description, as well as concise and condensed. The book evinces much historical research, and embodies many important facts. It is a work that we can heartily commend, as one that should find a place in every family library.

24.—*Love's Token Flowers.* By Emma C. Embury. New York: J. C. Riker.

This handsome little volume contains the names of more than sixty of love's token flowers, each illustrated with an original poem of the gifted author, whose fancy has beautifully associated love and poetry with flowers; thus spiritualizing truth far more effectually than all the reasonings of sicence.

25—*The History of the United States of North America, from the plantation of the British Provinces till their assumption of National Independence.* By JAMES GRAHAM, L. L. D., in four volumes, second edition, enlarged and amended. Philadelphia: Lee and Blanchard, 1845.

We are indebted to Mr. Josiah Quincy for the republication of this invaluable addition to our historical literature, as well as for much information respecting its eminent writer. Its merits, as a history, could not be enumerated in a notice of such limits as our pages admit of, nor could we speak of the well known learning, talents or virtues of its author. For the latter, we must refer to his interesting memoir, by Mr. Quincy, which was published both separate from this work, and is also prefixed to it, compiled from his extended correspondence. The history is here published in four elegant octavo volumes, with a fine portrait of the author. How much we are indebted to him, as Americans, can only be learned by a perusal of it, regarded as it has been by such men as Judge Story, Jared Sparks, Judge Savage and William H. Prescott, the historian, as abounding in "laborious research and merit, and written in a faithful and elevated spirit." It is a work of standard value, and enduring interest, and should find a place in every public or private library in the country. We earnestly commend it to the notice of those who have the selection of works for our School District Libraries.

26.—*Stable Talk and Table Talk; or Spectacles for Young Sportsmen.* By HARRY HIEOVER. Philadelphia: Lea & Blanchard.

This is a medley for the sportsman, furnishing rules for the training and curing of his horse, and also hints for his management on the turf, blended with broad anecdotes, jokes, and humour, which makes it just fitted to answer the purpose suggested by its title. The writer is evidently a sportsman in feeling, by nature and by cultivation, and writes for those *sui generis*. The wit is sometimes broad, but polish would be out of place in the scenes he describes. Still the author is nice in points of honor, and his beau ideal of a gentleman, though characteristic, not too low. The preface is one of the most sarcastic, pungent things, we have lately read; and the sporting world will welcome this addition to their literature, and give it all the credit it deserves.

27.—*The Snow Flake, for 1846. A Gift for Innocence and Beauty.* Edited by T. S. Arthur. Philadelphia and New York: E. Ferrett & Co.

This is an almost faultless annual, and rarely surpassed in elegance of publication, or taste in choice of contents. The contributions are from some of our most popular writers, among whom we would mention the gifted editor, T. S. Arthur, George P. Morris, Henry P. Hirst, Fanny Forester, Mrs. Elizabeth Oakes Smith, Mrs. E. F. Ellet, etc., etc. The first is a translation from Kotzbue, of "The Quakers," the scene of which is laid in the American revolution, and the principal characters were General Howe, his suite, and three Quakers. It is interesting, from the scenes and author. There are several delightfully written tales, of which we have not room to enumerate the titles or names of their authors. They deserve the highest rank as short fictions, and are accompanied with many choice poetical contributions. The chief attractions of the volume are the beautifully executed engravings. The frontispiece, "Lady Helen," engraved by Robinson, is the most life-like, speaking countenance, we have ever seen from any artist. The title-page, and "Edith Bellenden," from the same engraver, are unsurpassable. The "Gleaner," by Heath, "The Smuggler's Boat" and "Crew," by Brandard, in fact, all of them are very fine specimens. Paper, gilding, and binding, are appropriate to such beauties of art and genius.

28.—*Leaflets of Memory; an Annual for MDCCCXLVI.* Edited by RENNELL COATES, M. D. Philadelphia: E. H. Butler & Co.

There is a substantial, rather than delicate richness, about the outward appearance of this annual. In addition to a few fine engravings, of which we could hardly speak in terms of too high commendation, the title pages, etc., are illuminated—a rare mode of ornament, particularly in annuals. The contributions are chiefly from the pen of the editor, Dr. Coates, and Henry B. Hirst. They are principally tales of a light character, with the addition of two or three poems. Although the tales are rather lengthy than numerous, the volume is above the ordinary size of annuals, owing to the superior paper on which it is printed. It is, on the whole, the most desirable gift book of the season, emanating from the Philadelphia press, at least, that we have had an opportunity of examining.

29.—*The Romish Church and Modern Society.* Translated from the French of Prof. E. QUINET, of the College of France. Edited by C. EDWARDS LESTER. New York: Gates & Stedman.

30.—*The Jesuits.* Translated from the French of M. M. MICHELET, and QUINET, professors in the College of France. Edited by C. EDWARDS LESTER. New York: Gates & Stedman.

The first of these translations contains the lectures of Prof. Quinet, and the second is the joint labor of himself, and his well-known coadjutor, Prof. Michelet. Their purpose was to controvert the growing influence of the society of Jesuits, and, by the exposure of their plans, deceptions, and true spirit, as well as in what consisted the secret of the greatness of the Romish Church, they have given a powerful direction to public sentiment, and been one of the influences which have aided to drive the Jesuits from France to Italy. Nothing can be more encouraging to the progress of intellectual freedom, than the action of these men, and the spirit displayed in these volumes of true appreciation of Christianity, the historical research, and philosophical deductions which they embody, as well as the applicability of much of the advice to the Jesuitism of our land, should make them welcome to all.

31.—*A History of Long Island, from its First Settlement by the Europeans, to the year 1845, with Special Reference to its Ecclesiastical Concerns.* By NATHANIEL S. PRIME. New York: Robert Carter.

This volume, a thick duodecimo of 490 pages, is divided into two parts, 194 of which are devoted to its physical features and civil affairs, progress of population, etc., and the remaining 295 to its intellectual, moral and religious condition, from its first settlement to the present time. Until within a few years, Long Island was scarcely known, beyond the map, to non-residents; and we venture to say, that more strangers have passed over it in one day, since the completion of the Long Island Rail Road, than in a century before. It was so far removed—so difficult of access, and presented so few inducements to wander through its forests, and ride through its sands, that for the space of two hundred years it has remained in a great measure *terra incognita* to almost the whole world. Mr. Prime has furnished a very valuable book; and while he has given an interesting account of its religious history, he has also given a very comprehensive view of the population, resources, &c. of the island.

32.—*The Poems of* ALFRED B. STREET. Complete edition. New York: Clark & Austin.

The poems embraced in this volume have been mostly published in periodicals. Three or four—"Nature," "The Frontier Inroad," "Moranna," and "The Freshet," are quite long, while the remainder are of the usual length of fugitive pieces. They are generally descriptive of the outward world, and nature in its varied aspects. The author exhibits more than ordinary power of description, and a sentiment of worship for, and deep sympathy with nature, showing, as he states in his preface, that he has spent much time in the beautiful and picturesque scenes of his own state, and that he has drank deeply from that ever-fresh fountain, and read and understood the language the Deity has everywhere written. Most of the pieces exhibit versatility, introducing many new objects of beauty in rich language and original imagery. The volume is handsomely issued, and while it adds another, will do no dishonor to American poetic literature.

33.—*Poems.* By FRANCES S. OSGOOD. New York: Clark & Austin.

In the numerous and varied poems of this collection, we discern the outpouring of a buoyant, joyous spirit, a sportive playfulness of fancy and sentiment, which wishes to see and make the world in the same good-humor as herself. We should place the volume in the same rank among poetry that we should classify among the different phases of humanity, a happy, romping child, flying among the sports and pleasures of life, now trampling the lilies and roses under its feet, and anon chasing the butterfly in summer gardens, without a cloud upon its spirits. There is much beauty in these short poems, and their author is justly a favorite; for a spirituality, not too sublimated, and still human, appealing to our sympathies with the joyful and sometimes the tender, by delightful images and beautiful language, runs through them all.

34.—*The Chainbearer, or the Little Page Manuscripts.* By J. FENIMORE COOPER, author of "Miles Wallingford," "Pathfinder," etc. New York: Burgess, Stringer & Co.

This novel is a continuation of "Satanstoe," the scene of which, it will be remembered, was laid in the period previous to the old French war. The characters which figure in the "Chainbearer," are the descendants (with the lapse of one generation) of those who figured in "Satanstoe." The plot is well carried on, and the story rendered characteristic of Cooper, by the introduction of the Indian and negro. The design of the series is to touch the question of *anti rentism;* the application, probably, of the characters of "Satanstoe" and the "Chainbearer" to the circumstances and principles of that exciting subject, being intended for the last. The contrast between those descended from Puritan and Dutch forefathers, is also well kept up.

35.—*Rambles by Land and Water, or Notes of Travel in Cuba and Mexico; including a Canoe Voyage up the River Panuco, and Researches among the Ruins of Tamaulipas, etc.* By B. M. NORMAN, author of "Rambles in Yucatan," etc. New York: Paine & Burgess.

A considerable part of the field here surveyed has been occupied by previous travellers, and most of the objects which they present have been observed and treated of in an attractive form, but not, as we recollect, in a more agreeable style. But the field is wide, and Mr. Norman has succeeded in gathering materials of sufficient interest to form a very readable and instructive volume. We have seldom met with a book of travels, over so wide a range of country, and touching so many interesting incidents and topics, presented to the reader so comprehensively. The volume contains several engravings of the curious relics of antiquity.

36.—*The Gem of the Season.* Edited by J. H. AGNEW. With Twenty Plates by SARTAIN. New York: Leavitt, Trow & Co.

With Sartain's splendid mezzotints, twenty in number, and of the highest elegance, design, and execution, selections from some of England's best poets, neat binding, beautiful paper and print, this annual really deserves to be called a "Gem." The subjects of most of the engravings are grand in character; of which, "Napoleon at St. Helena," "Milton Dictating to his Daughters," "Trial of Queen Katharine," "Hector and Andromache," "The Last Man," are striking instances. The preface claims that it is the best that has appeared this side of the water, and hints rather invidiously at England. Certainly, we have rarely if ever seen more tasteful specimens of engravings, with more beautiful and appropriate poetical illustrations.

37.—*Geraldine, a Sequel to Coleridge's Christabel: and other Poems.* By MARTIN FARQUHAR TUPPER. Boston: Saxton & Kelt. New York: Saxton & Huntington.

All who have read Coleridge's artistic poem, must judge whether Mr Tupper has added or detracted from the merits of that masterly production, by his "Geraldine." To us, it seems a completion of an unfinished statue, in which the second artist has happily caught the spirit of the first. The same measure and supernatural vein of description, vivid contrast of the beautiful and the hideous, and especially, wonderful adaptation of words to produce an image for the sense, corresponding to that produced upon the mind by the idea, are apparent in both. As to the remaining poems of the volume, although we recognise the marks of style and thought, which distinguish the rhymed philosophy by which Mr. T. is so well known, yet some abound in deep touches of passion and sentiment, establishing the versatility of Mr. Tupper's powers, and claim as a poet of no mean rank.

38.—*Montezuma, or the Conquest of Mexico, a Historical Romance.* By EDWARD MATURIN. In two volumes. New York: Paine & Burgess.

The principal characters and incidents of this tale, are taken from Mr. Prescott's History of the conquest of Mexico, which is almost a romance itself in interest. These, Mr. Maturin has filled up with lively subordinate characters, corresponding well with the history of the time. The plot, as far as it depends upon his invention, is ingeniously contrived, but throughout the whole there predominates a marvellous spirit, expressed in a classical, ornate style. The historical events connected with Cortez and his followers, and the weak, vacillating character of Montezuma, offer a fair field to the fiction-writer, and, on the whole, Mr. Maturin has discharged his task in a skilful manner. It belongs to the genius of our country thus to take the materials for their romances from the wide storehouse of the American continent.

39.—*Zenosius; or the Pilgrim-Convert.* By Rev. CHARLES CONSTANTINE PISE, D. D., author of "Aletheia," "St. Ignatius and his First Companions," etc. Dunigan's Home Library. New York: Edward Dunigan.

Zenosius, from the Greek, signifies a pilgrim. The design of the story is to elucidate the spirit and character of the Catholic church—to portray, in the person of Zenosius, the hero, "the movement which is going on among eminent and pious Protestant churchmen, towards Rome." It is, of course, sectarian; but Dr. Pise is too much of a gentleman and scholar, and possesses too much of the charitable spirit of the Christianity of its founder, to be illiberal towards those who may entertain different views of the church to which he belongs. It does not profess to be controversial, but explanatory.

40—*The Maiden: a Story for my Young Countrywomen. The Wife: a Story for my Young Countrywomen.* By T. S. ARTHUR, author of "Sweethearts and Wives," "Lovers and Husbands," "Married and Single," etc. Philadelphia: E. Ferrett & Co.

These two volumes are to be followed by a third, by the same author—"The Mother," etc. Their object is to exhibit woman in the conditions of maiden, wife, and mother, under the trials and temptations that surround her, and to show that a love of virtue and truth makes for her a protecting sphere, guarding her safe through every danger. They appear to us to be well calculated to fulfil the beneficent mission designed for them by the author.

41.—*Manual of Diseases of the Skin.* From the French of M. CAZENAVE and SCHEDEL, with Notes and Additions by THOMAS H. BURGESS, M. D., etc. Revised and Corrected by H. D. BULKLEY, M. D., Lecturer on Diseases of the Skin, etc. New York: J. & H. G. Langley.

This treatise is purely scientific in its classification, terminology, and information. It embodies the results of long experience and accurate observations, and we can, on the highest Allopathic medical authority, recommend it to both practitioners and students, as combining faithful and graphic descriptions of all diseases of the skin, and sound principles for their treatment.

42.—*The Sufferings of Christ.* By A LAYMAN. New York: Harper & Brothers.

The author of this volume informs the reader, in his preface, that his "effort, in every page and in every sentence, will have sought to exalt and magnify the glorious atonement." He asserts and maintains, by a show of argument, that "the expiatory agonies of our Lord reached not only his humanity, but his very Godhead." It is written in a singularly clear, nervous, and forcible style.

BOOKS IN PAPER COVERS, PUBLISHED SINCE OUR LAST.

43.—*Elenor Wyllys; or, the Young Folk of Longbridge. A Tale.* By AMABEL PENFEATHER. In two volumes. Edited by JAMES FENIMORE COOPER. Philadelphia: Carey & Hart. [We have not found time to read this story, but as the "editor has great confidence in the principles, taste, and intelligence of the real author," we think we may venture to recommend it to the numerous admirers of Mr. Cooper.]

44.—*A Peep into London Society.* By "PUNCH." With Ten Illustrations. Philadelphia: Carey & Hart. [This work furnishes a graphic caricature of fashionable life in London, and indeed many of its features will not be found altogether inapplicable to the *scribeism* of this country. The ten illustrations of Leech, almost tell the story conveyed in the letter-press. They are capital.]

45.—*Love and Mesmerism.* By HORACE SMITH, Esq., author of the "Brambletye House," "Adam Brown," "Arthur Arundel." Harpers' Library of Select Novels, No. LXVII. New York: Harper & Brothers. [The very popular writer of "Rejected Addresses," after a long silence, comes again before the world of fiction with these two productions, the first of which was embodied in an unfinished drama by the author, and is full of interest, the vein being romantic, but still probable; the other exhibiting a pure and beautiful character in English common life, who held a communication with the spiritual world.]

THE

# MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE,

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HUNT'S

# MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE.

FEBRUARY, 1846.

## Art. I.—THE UNITED STATES' CENSUS OF 1850:

WITH REFERENCE TO THE POLITICAL RELATIONS OF THE EASTERN AND WESTERN STATES.

THE most important political subject before the American people, at the present time, is the approaching change in the geographical centre of power in the country. While we are intent upon minor interests, we are giving little heed to the fact, that, in a very brief period, the seat of the growing power in these states will be completely changed. Neither the annexation of Texas, nor the formal possession of Oregon, can be compared, in its influence upon the Atlantic states, with that numerical superiority which, at the very next census, will make the west the dominant portion of the Republic.

Let no one suppose that this change will be rather nominal than real—a change in the place of power, and not in the governing influences. Most important changes must take place, and these it behoves the people of the east well and early to consider. Commercial, maritime, and manufacturing interests, have hitherto had the principal attention of the government. A large part of our legislation has been directed to the fostering of one or the other of these interests, or to the settlement of their conflicting claims to favor and protection. Agriculture is, no doubt, at the east as at the west, the great business of life; but it is, nevertheless, true, that partly from want of concentration among those who pursue this occupation, and partly from the nature of the employment itself, these interests have received but a small share of consideration from the government. This state of things must and will cease. Agriculture is not merely one of the western interests; it is that which absorbs and swallows up every other. Manufacturers and merchants, from being congregated in cities and manufacturing establishments, exert, at the east, an influence out of all proportion—greater than belongs to their relative wealth and numbers. They act in masses, and their appearance is rendered, in this way, much more imposing, and their real power greatly strengthened. But manufacturers at the west are too insignificant to claim or receive a separate attention; and the moment

this portion of the country obtains a clear and decided majority in the legislature of the Union, the interests of agriculture will assume a prominence to which they have hitherto made no approach in that body.

Other changes must be expected to follow. The commerce upon the lakes, and the Mississippi and its tributaries, and the Gulf of Mexico, is, at least, as important, in proportion to the population, as the internal and foreign commerce of the sea-board. Yet, while a vast amount of treasure has been expended in the promotion of the latter, it has been with the utmost difficulty that any appropriation, however small, could be obtained from Congress for the former. In governmental expenditures the west has been regarded almost as foreign territory; and Congress seems hardly to have been aware that this far country had any interests to foster. The amount of outlay on a single work on the Atlantic—the Delaware breakwater—exceeds, if we are not mistaken, all appropriations of every sort for intercommunication, and for commercial purposes, for the whole immense region included between the lakes and the Gulf of Mexico, and stretching from the Apalachian range to the Rocky Mountains.

In all this there must, and will be, a change. The current of the public money which, for half a century, has been setting east, will assuredly change its direction, and follow the population of the country. For every harbor appropriation, on the Atlantic, two will have to be made on the lakes. Every fort and navy-yard at the east, will require to be balanced by a western brother. The east will be fortunate if no stricter rule be adopted. A very decided change will also take place in the distribution of governmental patronage. The Atlantic states will not engross the higher offices of the nation. The two millions of western voters will require to be fully represented in all departments of the government.

We are inclined to think that the extreme democracy of the west will be very discernible in Congress after the next census. With institutions somewhat more democratical than ours, the spirit of that section of the country is decidedly in advance of us in this particular. There is, there, absolutely no counteracting force. Wealth is, with us, much more unequally distributed; social distinctions more marked. Constant intercourse with the old world has a perceptible influence over the Atlantic towns; and there still remain some reminiscences, faint and fleeting though they be, of family, and family connections. At the west, the "spirit of the age" is so completely the ruling spirit, that very little concern is felt about the spirit of past ages; and precedents are discarded, the rather because somebody has tried them before. When this western characteristic gives a tone to Congress, the people of the east will find they have some lessons to learn, with whatever grace they can muster. The great proportion of foreigners in the population of the new states, following the law of reaction, forms an ultra and democratic element, which will be as difficult to manage as a newly released prisoner after his first draught of fresh air, and other intoxicating fluids. Look at some of the latest formed constitutions—that of Iowa for instance—and see whether the force of democracy can much further go. Elective judges chosen for limited periods; two dollars daily pay for legislators; all charters repealable at the will of the legislature; these form some of the items of these constitutions.

That the spirit of unadulterated democracy—understanding by this term something far other than the enlightened freedom which is contemplated by our Constitution—is exceedingly prevalent in that wide region called

the west, is but too clearly proved by the Mormon contests. This spirit fully received, demands that the will of the people, to-day, should be the law for to-day, in spite of any musty antiquated records called laws, and the like, which are merely the opinions of people who lived years ago; and like the precepts of our religion, well enough for those times, but not at all adapted to ours. Hence the undisguised murder of Smith, with the absolute impunity of the murderers, notwithstanding the Governor's pledge of honor for his safety, and his strenuous efforts to bring the perpetrators to justice. The people of Illinois have gone on to burn out a population of fifteen or twenty thousand people, consuming house after house with systematic deliberation, in order to rid themselves of a portion of the people whom they do not like; and there is no power in the state to stop them. The constitution, the laws, and the magistrates, are as if they were not. The sovereign will of the people—that is, their will for to-day, is not to be resisted. Such is the actual construction of the doctrine of majorities in the second state of the west.

In Michigan a serious attempt is making to do away with the legal profession, by allowing every one, without distinction, to practise in the courts of law. Should this measure succeed, as it is very likely to do, the profession held by De Tocqueville to be our strongest barrier against unlimited democracy, will in that state be at an end. But the constitution of Iowa, the practice of Illinois, and the attempted innovation of Michigan, are introduced here, not as of themselves of great importance in this connection, but as showing the ultra-democratic, or anti-conservative spirit of the new region. Let no one suppose, such being the elements of western political power and tendencies, the relative strength can be shifted westward without producing a marked influence upon the action of the federal government. The doctrine of majorities, and of numerical force, is coming upon us with perpetually increasing power; and it were marvellous indeed if it were not to exert itself with vast effect in this its most ample and lofty sphere. The predominant views of that section which makes the government, will go far in determining its action. The power of the west—as yet only talked of—is to be felt, and felt, too, as the grasp of a giant.

One most important result, for which we must be prepared, is a change in the disposal of the public lands. Great uneasiness has, at various times, been manifested, both in Congress, and elsewhere, upon this important subject. The United States, it is said, being out of debt, and having an abundant revenue from commerce, do not need those lands; while the states in which they are situated do need them. Much is said of the natural right of any one, who sees fit to occupy and improve wild land, and make it his own by cultivation. It is farther asserted that, if such land have any owner except the occupier, that owner is more properly the state than the general government. These doctrines find, at the west, willing advocates and ready listeners. No man is so popular as he who talks largely of state rights, and harangues against the encroachments and usurpations of the general government.

Believing that the present mode of disposing of these lands, by the government, is best for the settler and for the states themselves, and only just to the people of the old states, we look with some apprehension on the greatly increased power which the next census will place in the hands of those interested to make the popular doctrines available. In a long letter

from Iowa, published last year in the Ohio Statesman, it is stated that "claim-laws," (neighborhood agreements as to unsold government lands,) can be made effective, if necessary, "against Uncle Sam himself." The writer states a sad truth. Congress will, in all probability, be assailed in favor of admitting the validity of "claim-laws," by the strong argument of its inability to resist the enforcement of them. This side of the question has now a strong western advocacy in Congress; the census will back that advocacy by a strong western vote.

With regard to our foreign relations, we do not perceive that western predominance is likely to produce any important changes, except of a commercial nature. European powers will have no inducement to disturb us. The possessions of England, on our continent, are too far north to be coveted, if we except some portions of Canada, and these portions are fast filling up with citizens. Future opposition to the English government, in that quarter, will probably proceed from within; nor will any important aid be obtained from our borders until the contest shall be far advanced. It is not at all likely that such will ever have influence to prevail with our government to move in their favor; nor that the British government will ever make a national matter of individual aid to Canadian insurgents. The intervention of the great lakes, and a cold northern region, are strong securities for peace in that direction. Elsewhere, the Texan experiment will be repeated, and successfully, whenever it suits our people, or any portion of them, strong enough to occupy, forcibly, a weak neighboring territory. Our government may countenance them, as it is charged with having done in the former case; or, it may make a *proclamation* against the overt acts of its citizens, as it has sometimes done on other occasions; it never has been, and it probably never will be, successful against a strong sectional movement.

The western influence will be in favor of an economical administration of the government. It will look favorably on neither a large army, nor a large navy. The former will be opposed as unnecessary, and the latter as sectional; and the west will prefer meeting danger when it is present, to the expense of guarding against that which may be only imaginary. Should the contingency actually arise, however, the west will meet it with the greatest liberality and heartiness. No part of the nation will be found better furnished with stout hands and eager hearts.

It may be interesting to some of our readers to see exhibited, somewhat in detail, the calculations upon which we base our opinion of the predominance of the west at the next census. Washington was made the seat of government before the acquisition of Louisiana, and before the existence of a state north of the Ohio river. At that period, three-fourths, at least, of the population, were east of the meridian of Washington. At the last census, not more than three-eighths were east of that meridian. This statement may appear surprising to some of our readers, but a comparison of the census of 1840 with the map, will convince them of its accuracy.

By the next census, fully two-thirds of the population will be found west of the same meridian, at which period the Valley of the Mississippi, including the country of the lakes, and the Gulf of Mexico, will, for the first time, have a numerical preponderance. These three great divisions are properly ranged under the western head, in distinction from the eastern, or Atlantic states. They have peculiar facilities for intercommunication by

natural and artificial channels. The people of western Georgia, and Alabama, are nearer to Cincinnati, or Louisville, for business, intercourse, or influence, than they are to Richmond, or Washington, or Philadelphia. They have one great commercial centre—New Orleans. The Ohio river forms nearly the central line of this vast region, considered in reference to its geographical extent, and its population. Two canals already unite this river and the greater northern lakes, and a railroad is in progress having in view a more rapid communication. From every point on three of the great lakes, Cleveland is reached by steam; and thence to Cincinnati, the distance is but two hundred and fifty miles, while from Cleveland to Washington, the distance by the usual routes is eight hundred miles. The region of the lakes, then, as far as the barrier of Niagara, is but an off-shoot from the wide central valley, and the region of the Gulf claims a like relationship to the same vast trunk of the Republic.

In 1840, the Atlantic states had, (omitting fractions,) 10,700,000 inhabitants; and the states lying west of the mountains, and between the lakes and Gulf, 6,400,000. From the former must be deducted one-fourth of the population of Pennsylvania, Virginia, and Georgia, and the small part of New York lying on Lake Erie, as they are decidedly western in position, interests, and character. This portion amounts to about 1,000,000, making the Atlantic population, at the last census, 9,600,000; the entire western, 7,500,000. From 1790 to 1840, the Atlantic portion, (excluding that part of those states which properly belong to the west,) increased 6,120,000, or 1,220,000 for each decennium since the first census. The increase was nearly uniform during the three first periods, being about 1,070,000; it rose in the fourth period, or from 1820 to 1830, to 1,600,000, but decreased in the fifth from this last number to 1,330,000. Assuming this to be the increase for the current decennium, we shall have, at the census of 1850, a population of 10,930,000 in the Atlantic portion of the states. Allowing the increase of the whole United States to be the same as hitherto—that is, at the rate of one-third for every ten years, we shall have for our entire population, in 1850, 22,760,000; from which, deducting the Atlantic portion, 10,930,000, there remain for the west 11,830,000; or, a majority of 900,000. That we are entirely within the mark, in estimating the growth of the west, appears clearly from the following table:—

INCREASE OF THE WEST FROM 1790 to 1840.

| | |
|---|---|
| 1790 to 1800,..... | 270,000 |
| 1800 to 1810,..... | 690,000 |
| 1810 to 1820,..... | 1,170,000 |
| 1820 to 1830,..... | 1,430,000 |
| 1830 to 1840,..... | 2,900,000 |

From this it will be seen that the ratio of increase has been, in two of the periods, over 100 per cent; in one of them 70 per cent; and in only one has it fallen below 50 per cent; while for the preceding ten years it exceeded one hundred. No one denies that the causes which have hitherto so rapidly swelled the population of this vast region, are, for the most part, still in operation. After 1850, then, we have the fullest assurance that the population of this country will have its centre west of the mountains. Under the system of universal suffrage, the centre of population becomes, necessarily, the centre of political power. While the population of the eastern section increases in arithmetical, that of the western increases in geometrical progression. The Atlantic portion has

grown with great uniformity since the first census; during no decennium less than 1,000,000, nor more than 1,600,000. The west has moved forward during the same period at the almost incredible rate of 65 to 70 per cent, and we may safely assume 50 per cent for several more successive periods—perhaps nearly through the century.

With regard to wealth, the western states will not be behindhand. Possessed of a soil more fertile in the aggregate than that of the east, they lack no advantage of their elder brethren except the fisheries and foreign commerce. Greater natural facilities for internal commerce, are a full equivalent for the latter, while the inexhaustible lead and copper mines form a fair offset for the first. The other mineral productions, salt, coal, and iron, belong to the west in ample proportion to its extent. Its coal-fields are measured by hundreds of miles, and its iron-beds are equally inexhaustible; while the valley of the Kenhawa, alone, now yields its three millions of bushels of salt annually, and is capable of yielding any additional quantity that may be required.

The commerce of the lakes, the Mississippi, and the Gulf united, equals, probably surpasses, the coasting trade of the seaboard, with the trade also of its rivers; while the exports from New Orleans are not greatly inferior to those from New York. In fine, there is no reason to suppose that the wealth of the west will be, in the aggregate, inferior to that of the east in proportion to the respective population of each. There is then nothing to prevent the march of power from flowing immediately in the footsteps of population. For this certain transfer the east should prepare itself, and that without delay. The sceptre of empire is slipping from its grasp. The place where the supreme authority is exercised will be for a while within its limits; but the governing impulse must and will come from without. In view of this rapidly approaching change, what course ought the east to pursue? What change in the policy she has used towards the younger, and, hitherto, weaker members of the confederacy, will be demanded by wisdom and justice?

Our own views on this subject may, perhaps, be understood, at least in part, from the earlier part of this article. All questions affecting the common interests, and claims of east and west, and admitting of an early and final adjustment, ought to be settled on liberal principles within the next five or six years. Among these, the subject of the public lands deserves the first place. The east and west should be bound together by as many new and complete chains of communication as possible. General Washington's sagacity was never more conspicuous than in his recommendations on this subject sixty years ago. Congress should enter on a more liberal system of appropriations for the great western world. The Mississippi and the lakes should certainly be regarded as great national highways. Let them be treated as such. As to constitutional scruples, the instrument to which they refer has been shown to possess a most elastic nature whenever a majority, real or assumed, wished to accomplish a favorite object. Now that it has stretched itself so easily over Texas, and stands ready to cover any desirable part of Mexico, there surely will be no great difficulty in enabling it to reach our great interior waters.

The east should voluntarily assign to the west its full share of the public offices; for the west is not of a nature to put up with an unequal distribution as tamely as the north has long done. We shall be wise if we yield with grace whatever cannot be retained. If a strong disposition should

manifest itself even for the removal of the seat of government, it would be folly to meet the proposition with any violent opposition from the Atlantic states. We may reasonably hope that increased facilities for transportation will, ere that period, make the change a tolerable one even for the member from Passamaquoddy. We must attempt to substitute a beneficent moral power for the numerical and prescriptive weight we have hitherto enjoyed. Though the sceptre be no longer ours, we may yet thus perhaps guide the hand that wields it. To advance this effort, the increase of mail facilities, with the greatest possible diminution of the expense attending them, must be of the highest importance. Perhaps the whole country would gain by assuming, by a general tax, the entire burden of mail-transportation, leaving the cost of delivery as a sufficient check on the abuse of the privilege, or guarding against such abuse in some other way. Intercourse by mail, absolutely free, would prove a mighty bond of union between the widely separated districts of our almost boundless territory.

We might say something of the wisdom of offering our aid to the cause of education in the west, and of the great furtherance which this object would receive by free postage; but the recollection of the deplorably low state of public education among ourselves, with all our added years, and all our boasted advantages, must, for the present, seal our lips on that point. The west should be better known to us; not so much by books as by actual observation. No gentleman's education should be considered complete which did not embrace a thorough personal knowledge of the western country. A tour across the mountains, and along the whole length of the Mississippi, if not to the head waters of the Missouri, should ever, with us, precede the tour of Europe. Let it be held disgraceful for an American citizen to know the old world better than the new, or in becoming acquainted with the latter, to leave out of view its newest and most characteristic regions. Many an American, travelling in England, has blushed to own that he never saw Niagara; and his European friends, who value information and observation more than we, have thought he had good reason for doing so. Let us not wait to be shamed into more extensive researches within our own bounds. The press should become less sectional, and occupy itself more with the physical, statistical, and moral features of the whole country. If we are told that this is impossible, we are constrained to conclude that our country is too large—a doctrine too unpopular to be supported directly or indirectly by the press. At present the east is better known to the west than the west to the east; the press should do its best to establish an equilibrium in this respect, if not to turn the scale in our favor. In short, no reasonable means of convincing this young and ardent region of the sincerity of our regard, and the strength of our good will, can prudently be neglected. The best provision for this, is to feel and cultivate the sentiment, and to evince, by substantial proofs, the pride and interest and sympathy which her character and progress ought to excite. She is far too sagacious to be satisfied with professions.

## Art. II.—INFLUENCE OF COMMERCE IN THE AFFAIRS OF THE WORLD.

The establishment of Mercantile Library Associations in the principal cities of the United States, is one of the prominent features of the commercial spirit of our time. The Mercantile Library Association of New York has been, we need hardly allege, long known, and is founded on a solid basis. Within the last year an elegant edifice has been erected in Philadelphia, by the Mercantile Library Company of that city, established about the same period; and its spacious and splendid rooms furnished with an ample library, and all those accommodations required for the growth of the rising members of that commercial body. The city of Boston—the second in the Union in the amount of its commerce, and hardly below the fifth on the face of the globe—likewise possesses an association of the same character, which is liberally endowed.*

These associations are of great and incalculable benefit to young men engaged in trade and commerce. Like the associations of other bodies of men, they provide a convenient resort for the assemblies of individuals who are engaged in the same occupations, in the intervals of their labor; and while, by their libraries, and the lectures which are occasionally delivered, they contribute to the amusement of the merchants and their clerks, they also conduce, by their spirit, to the advancement of such persons in intelligence and morals.

The address,† a large portion of which we subjoin, was delivered on occasion of the last Anniversary of the Boston Mercantile Library Association. It is an able and spirited production, exhibiting that elevated strain of thought which characterises the efforts of Mr. Winthrop, one of the most distinguished young men of New England, and every way worthy of being added to the list of eminent persons who had preceded him on a number of former occasions.‡ A portion of the address is of a local character, but the general scope is to exhibit the importance of the commercial spirit of the age, as controlling the policy of the nations of modern times. Passing a deserved eulogium upon the beneficence of prominent merchants in Boston, who have bestowed, from the fruits of successful enterprise, large sums of money in founding institutions for public objects, he presents in a general sketch the example of the prominent nations of the present day whose policy is controlled by the commercial spirit, demonstrating at the same time the tendency of commerce to diminish war, diffuse knowledge, and to promote industry and justice. In alluding to the foundation of the city of Boston, Mr. Winthrop refers to the historical facts of the building and launching upon the Mystic river, of the first Boston vessel, in 1631, by his illustrious ancestor, Governor Winthrop, as a clear foreshadowing of the destiny of the metropolis of New England.

Passing over the local topics of Mr. Winthrop's address, we now proceed to lay before our readers an extended and connected extract, in which he speaks of commerce in its high and more comprehensive relations—its influence upon the social and political condition of the race :—

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* There are also Mercantile Associations in Baltimore, Louisville, Ky., etc., etc.

† An Address delivered before the Boston Mercantile Library Association, on the occasion of their Twenty-Fifth Anniversary, October 15th, 1845, by Robert C. Winthrop.

‡ John Davis, Edward Everett, Rufus Choate, George Putnam, etc.

"If one were called on to say, what upon the whole, was the most distinctive and characterizing feature of the age in which we live, I think he might reply, that it was the rapid and steady progress of the influence of commerce upon the social and political condition of man. The policy of the civilized world is now every where and eminently a commercial policy. No longer do the nations of the earth measure their relative consequence by the number and discipline of their armies upon the land, or their armadas upon the sea. The tables of their imports and exports, the tonnage of their commercial marines, the value and variety of their home trade, the sum total of their mercantile exchanges, these furnish the standards by which national power and national importance are now marked and measured. Even extent of territorial dominion is valued little, save as it gives scope and verge for mercantile transactions; and the great use of colonies is what Lord Sheffield declared it to be half a century ago, 'the monopoly of their consumption, and the carriage of their produce.'

"Look to the domestic administration, or the foreign negotiation of our own, or any other civilized country. Listen to the debates of the two houses of the Imperial Parliament. What are the subjects of their gravest and most frequent discussions? The succession of families? The marriage of princes? The conquest of provinces? The balance of power?—No, the balance of trade, the sliding scale, corn, cotton, sugar, timber—these furnish now the home-spun threads upon which the statesmen of modern days are obliged to string the pearls of their parliamentary rhetoric. Nay, the prime minister himself is heard discoursing upon the duties to be levied upon the seed of a certain savory vegetable—the use of which not even Parisian authority has rendered quite genteel on a fair day—as gravely, as if it were as true in regard to the complaints against the tariff of Great Britain, as some of us think it is true in reference to the murmurs against our own American tariff, that 'all the tears which should water this sorrow, live in an *onion!*'

"Cross over to the continent. What is the great fact of the day in that quarter? Lo, a convention of delegates from ten of the independent states of Germany, forgetting their old political rivalries and social feuds, flinging to the winds all the fears and jealousies which have so long sown dragon's teeth along the borders of neighboring states of disproportioned strength and different forms of government—the lamb lying down with the lion—the little city of Frankfort with the proud kingdom of Prussia—and all entering into a solemn league to regulate commerce and secure markets! What occupy the thoughts of the diplomatists, the Guizots, and Aberdeens, and Metternichs? Reciprocal treaties of commerce and navigation—treaties to advance an honest trade, or sometimes (I thank Heaven!) to abolish an infamous and accursed traffic—these are the engrossing topics of their protocols and ultimatums. Even wars, when they have occurred, or when they have been rumored, for a quarter of a century past, how almost uniformly has the real motive, whether of the menace or of the hostile act, proved to be—whatever may have been the pretence—not, as aforetime, to destroy, but to secure, the sources of commercial wealth. Algiers, Affghanistan, China, Texas, Oregon, all point more or less directly, to one and the same pervading policy throughout the world—of opening new markets, securing new ports, and extending commerce and navigation over new lands and new seas.

"But, Mr. President, the most signal and most gratifying illustration of the predominating influence of commerce in the affairs of the world, is to be drawn not from the consideration of wars, but of *peace*. It is a common form of remark, that the protracted and general peace, which the world has of late enjoyed, has been the cause of that vast extension of commerce which is every where witnessed. And doubtless, there is much truth in the idea intended to be conveyed by it. Certainly, too, there has been, and always will be, much of action and reaction in these coinciding circumstances, and much to account for various readings in the assignment of cause and consequence. Yet I cannot but think that the time has at length fully come, when the mode of stating the relations between these great interests, should be changed; and when commerce may fairly be considered as having substantiated its claim to that highest of all titles, *the great Con-*

*servator of the world's peace*, instead of being represented as a helpless dependent on peace for the liberty of prosecuting its own pursuits.

"Indeed, commerce has, in all ages, been the most formidable antagonist of war. That great struggle for the mastery, which has been going on, almost from the earliest syllable of recorded time, upon the theatre of human life, and which has been variously described and denominated, according to the aspect in which it has been regarded, or the object with which it was discussed—now as a struggle between aristocracy and democracy, and now as between the few and the many—has been little more than a struggle between the mercantile and martial spirit.

"For centuries, and cycles of centuries, the martial spirit has prevailed. The written history of the world, is one long bloody record of its triumph. And it cannot have escaped any one, how, during the periods of its sternest struggles, it has singled out the commercial spirit as its most formidable foe. Look at Sparta, for example; the state which, more than any other, was organized upon a purely war principle; though, to the credit of its founder be it spoken, with the view of defending its own territories, and not of encroaching upon the dominions of others. What was the first great stroke of policy adopted by the Lacedæmonian lawgiver to secure the supremacy of the martial spirit? What did he primarily aim to accomplish by his extraordinary enactments in relation to food, currency, education, honesty, and labor of all sorts? A Lacedæmonian happening to be at Athens when the court was sitting, was informed of a man who had just been fined for idleness. 'Let me see the person,' exclaimed he, 'who has been condemned for keeping up his *dignity!*' What was the philosophy of the black broth, the iron money, the consummate virtue of successful theft, the sublime dignity of idleness? It was the war system, entrenching itself, where alone it could be safe, on the ruins of commerce! The annihilation of trade, and all its inducements, and all its incidents—the extermination of the mercantile spirit, root and branch—this was the only mode which the sagacious Lycurgus could devise for maintaining the martial character of Sparta.

"Plato, who knew something of the practical value of commerce, if it be true that it was by selling oil in Egypt that he was enabled to defray the expenses of those travels and studies, by which he prepared himself to be one of the great lights of the world, bore witness to the wise adaptation of this policy to the end to be accomplished, when he declared that in a well regulated commonwealth, the citizens should not engage in commerce, because they would be accustomed to find pretexts for justifying conduct so inconsistent with what was manly and becoming, as would *relax the strictness of the military spirit;* adding, that it had been better for the Athenians to have continued to send annually the sons of seven of their principal citizens to be devoured by the Minotaur, than to have changed their ancient manners, and become a *maritime power.*

"It is this irreconcilable hostility between the mercantile and the martial spirit, which has led heroes, in all ages, to despise and deride the pursuits of trade—from the heroes of the Homeric age of ancient Greece, with whom a pirate is said to have been a more respected character than a merchant, to him of modern France, who could find no severer sarcasm for his most hated foes, than to call them 'a nation of shopkeepers.'

"The madman of Macedonia, as he is sometimes called, but to whom, by one having occasion for military talents, might well have been applied the remark of George the Second, in reference to General Wolfe, that he wished, if Wolfe were mad, he could have bitten some of the rest of his generals—after he had overrun almost the whole habitable earth, did indeed, in despair of finding any more dominions on the land to conquer, turn to the sea, to obtain fresh opportunity for gratifying his insatiate ambition. He projected a voyage for his fleet, from the Indus to the mouth of the Euphrates. Commercial views are sometimes regarded as having mingled with the ambition which prompted this undertaking. It has been called the first event of general importance to mankind in the history of commerce and navigation, and has been thought worthy of being commemorated on the page of its learned historian. by a medallion, on which the head of its heroic projector is illuminated by the proud inscription, 'aperiam terras gentibus.'

"Let us transport ourselves, gentlemen, for an instant, to a region recently rendered familiar by the events of Affghanistan and Scinde, and, turning back the page of history for a little more than two thousand years, catch a glimpse of the character and circumstances of this memorable voyage.

"Alexander, it seems, is at first sorely puzzled to find any one willing to assume the hazardous dignity of leading such an expedition. At length, Nearchus, a Cretan, is pressed into the service, and is duly installed as admiral of the fleet. Two thousand transports, and eighty galleys, of thirty oars each, are laboriously fitted out, and the hero accompanies them in person, in a perilous passage, down the Indus to the ocean. He approaches the mighty element not in that mood of antic and insolent presumption, which other madmen before and since have displayed on similar occasions. He throws no chains upon it, as Xerxes is narrated to have done, a century and a half earlier. He orders no host of spearmen to charge upon it, as Caligula did, three or four centuries afterwards. He does not even venture to try the effect of his imperial voice, in hushing its stormy billows, and bidding its proud waves to stay themselves at his feet, as Canute did, still a thousand years later. On the contrary, he humbles himself before its sublime presence—he offers splendid sacrifices, and pours out rich libations to its divinities, and puts up fervent prayers for the success and safety of his fleet.

"Nearchus is then directed to wait two months for a favorable monsoon. But a revolt of certain savage tribes in the neighborhood, compels him to anticipate its arrival, and he embarks and enters upon his voyage. At the end of six days, two of which, however, were passed at anchor, the fleet had advanced rather more than nine miles! After digging away a bar at the mouth of the Indus, a little more progress is made, and a sandy island reached, on which all hands are indulged with a day's rest. Again the anchors are weighed, but soon again the violence of the winds suspends all operations; the whole host are a second time landed, and remain upon shore for four-and-twenty days. Once more the voyage is renewed; but once more the winds rage furiously; two of the galleys and a transport are sunk in the gale, and their crews are seen swimming for their lives. A third time all hands disembark and fortify a camp. The long-expected monsoon at length sets in, and they start afresh, and with such accelerated speed, as to accomplish thirty-one miles in the first twenty-four hours. But then, a four days' battle with the natives, far more than counterbalances this unlooked-for speed. Soon after, however, a pilot is fallen in with, who engages to conduct them to the Persian Gulf. Under his auspices, they venture for the first time, to sail by night, when they can have the benefit of the land breeze, and when the rowers, relieved from the heat of the sun, can exert themselves to the best advantage. And now they are making almost twice as many miles in the twenty-four as before, when lo! a new trouble arrests their course. Huge columns of water are seen thrown up into the air before them. The explanation of the pilot, that they are but the sportful spoutings of a huge fish, only adds to their alarm. If such be his sport, what must his wrath be? All hands drop their oars in a panic! The admiral, however, exhorts them to dismiss their fears, and directs them, when a whale advances towards them, to bear down upon it bravely, and scare it from their path with shouts, and dashing of oars, and sounding of trumpets! The entrance of the Persian Gulf, a distance of about six hundred miles, is at length reached—the first and most difficult stage of the enterprise is accomplished; and the admiral, having hauled all his vessels ashore, and fortified them by a double entrenchment, proceeds to give the joyful tidings to his imperial master, who has kept along at no great distance from him on the coast, and they unite in offering the sacrifices of thanksgiving to Jupiter, Apollo, Hercules, Neptune, and I know not how many other deities of land, air, and ocean!

"Such, Mr. President, is a summary sketch of this first event of general importance to mankind in the history of navigation; an event which, though its details may excite the laughter of a Nantucket or New Bedford whalemap, or even of a Marblehead or Barnstable sailor boy, was counted among the gravest and grandest exploits of that unrivalled hero of antiquity, who took Achilles for his model, and could not sleep without Aristotle's copy of the Iliad under his pillow. If any

commercial views are justly ascribed to the projector of such an expedition, it furnishes an early and striking illustration of the idea, which the general current of history has since confirmed, that the mercantile and martial spirits were never to be the subjects of reconciliation and compromise, nor commerce destined to be seen yoked to the car, and decorating the triumph of military ambition. At all events, it supplies an amusing picture of the navigation of those early days, and shows how poorly provided and appointed was the mercantile spirit of antiquity for its great mission of civilization and peace. Transports and triaconters, skimming along the coast without a compass, and propelled by oarsmen who were panic-stricken at the spouting of a whale, were not the enginery by which commerce was to achieve its world-wide triumphs. And it was another admiral than Nearchus, not yielding himself reluctantly to the call of an imperious sovereign, but prompted by the heroic impulses of his own breast, and offering up his prayers and oblations at another shrine than that of Jupiter or Neptune, who, in a still far distant age, was to open the world to the nations, give the commercial spirit searoom, and lend the original impulse to those great movements of navigation and trade by which the whole face of society has been transformed.

"Well might the mail-clad monarchs of the earth refuse their countenance to Columbus, and reward his matchless exploit with beggary and chains. He projected, he accomplished that, which, in its ultimate and inevitable consequences, was to wrest from their hands the implements of their ferocious sport—to break their bow and knap their spear in sunder, and all but to extinguish the source of their proudest and most absolute prerogative.

> 'No kingly conqueror, since time began
> The long career of ages, hath to man
> A scope so ample given for *Trade's* bold range,
> Or caused on earth's wide stage, such rapid, mighty change.'

From the discovery of the new world, the mercantile spirit has been rapidly gaining upon its old antagonist; and the establishment upon these shores of our own Republic, whose Union was the immediate result of commercial necessities, whose independence found its original impulse in commercial oppressions, and of whose constitution the regulation of commerce was the first leading idea—may be regarded as the epoch, at which the martial spirit finally lost a supremacy which, it is believed and trusted, it can never re-acquire.

"Yes, Mr. President, it is commerce which is fast exorcising the fell spirit of war from nations which it has so long been tearing and rending. The merchant may, indeed, almost be seen at this moment summoning the rulers of the earth to his counting desk, and putting them under bonds to keep the peace! Upon what do we ourselves rely, to counteract the influence of the close approximation of yonder flaming planet to our sphere? Let me rather say, (for it is not in our stars, but in ourselves, that we are to look for the causes which have brought the apprehensions of war once more home to our hearts,) upon what do we rely, to save us from the bloody arbitrement of questions of mere territory and boundary, into which our own arbitrary and ambitious views would plunge us? To what do we look to prevent a protracted strife with Mexico, if not to arrest even the outbreak of hostilities—but to the unwillingness of the great commercial powers, that the trade of the West Indies and of the Gulf should be interrupted? Why is it so confidently pronounced, that Great Britain will never go to war with the United States for Oregon? Why, but that trade has created such a Siamese ligament between the two countries, that every blow upon us would be but as a blow of the right arm upon the left. Why, but that in the smoke-pipe of every steamer which brings her merchandise to our ports, we see a *calumet of Peace*, which her warchiefs dare not extinguish. Commerce has, indeed, almost realized ideas which the poet, in his wildest fancies, assumed as the very standard of impossibility. We may not 'charm ache with air, or agony with words;' but may we not 'fetter strong madness with a *cotton* thread?' Yes, that little fibre, which was not known as a product of the North American soil, when our old colonial union with Great Britain was dissolved, has already been spun by the ocean-moved power-loom of

international commerce, into a thread which may fetter forever the strong madness of war!

"Yet let us not, let us not, experiment upon its tension too far. Neither the influences of commerce, nor any other influences, have yet brought about the day, (if indeed such a day is ever to be enjoyed before the second coming of the Prince of Peace,) when we may regard all danger of war at an end, and when we may fearlessly sport with the firebrands which have heretofore kindled it, or throw down the firearms by which we have been accustomed to defend ourselves against it. Preparation, I will not say, *for* war, but *against* war, is still the dictate of common prudence. And while I would always contend first, for that preparation of an honest, equitable, inoffensive, and unaggressive policy towards all other nations, which would secure us, in every event, the triple armor of a just cause, I am not ready to abandon those other preparations for which our constitution and laws have made provision. Nor do I justify such preparations only on any narrow views of state necessity and worldly policy. I know no policy as a statesman, which I may not pursue as a Christian. I can advocate no system before men, which I may not justify to my own conscience, or which I shrink from holding up in humble trust before my God.

"This is not the time or the place, however, for discussing the policy or the principle of military defences. I have only alluded to the subject, lest, in paying a heartfelt tribute to the pacific influences of commerce, I might seem to sympathize with views which would call upon Congress, at their coming session, to disband our army and militia, and dismantle our fortifications and ships of war—while Mexico is still mustering her forces upon the Rio Grande—while England may be concentrating her fleets upon the Columbia—and while Cherokees, and Seminoles, and Camanches, burning with hereditary hatred, and smarting under immediate wrongs, are ready to pounce upon the powerless wherever they can find them.

"I honor the advocates of peace wherever they may be found; and gladly would I hail the day, when their transcendent principles shall be consistent with the maintenance of those organized societies which are so clearly of Divine origin and sanction; the day, when

> 'All crimes shall cease, and ancient fraud shall fail,
> Returning Justice lift aloft her scale;
> Peace o'er the world her olive wand extend,
> And white-rob'd Innocence from heaven descend.'

"In the meantime, let us rejoice that the great interests of international commerce are effecting practically, what these sublime principles aim at theoretically. It is easy, I know, to deride these interests as sordid, selfish, dollar-and-cent influences, emanating from the pocket, instead of from the heart or the conscience. But an enlightened and regulated pursuit of real interests, is no unworthy policy, either on the part of individuals or nations, and a far-sighted selfishness is not only consistent with, but is often itself, the truest philanthropy. Commandments of not inferior authority to the Decalogue, teach us, that the love of our neighbor, a duty second only in obligation to the love of God, is to find its measure in that love of self, which has been implanted in our nature for no unwise or unwarrantable ends. Yet, gentlemen, while I would vindicate the commercial spirit from the reproaches which are too often cast upon it, and hail its triumphant progress over the world as the harbinger of freedom, civilization, and peace, I would by no means intimate an opinion, that it is not itself susceptible of improvement—that it does not itself demand regulation and restraint. The bigotry of the ancient Canonists, regarded trade as inconsistent with Christianity, and the Council of Melfi, under Pope Urban the Second, decreed, that it was impossible to exercise any traffic, or even to follow the profession of the law, with a safe conscience. God forbid, that while we scoff at the doctrine which would excommunicate commerce from the pale of Christianity, we should embrace the far more fatal doctrine, which should regard the principles of Christianity as having no place, and no authority in the pursuits of commerce! The commercial spirit has rendered noble service to mankind. Its influence in promoting domestic order, in stimulating individual industry, in establishing and developing the great principle of *the division of labor*—

its appropriation of the surplus products of all mechanical and all agricultural industry for its cargoes—its demand upon the highest exercise of invention and skill for its vehicles—its appeal to the sublimest science for its guidance over the deep —its imperative requisition of the strictest public faith and private integrity—its indirect, but not less powerful operation in diffusing knowledge, civilization and freedom over the world—all conspire with that noble conquest over the spirit of war which I have described, in commending it to the gratitude of man, and in stamping it with the crown-mark of a divinely appointed instrument for good. As long as the existing state of humanity is unchanged—as long as man is bound to man by wants, and weaknesses, and mutual dependencies, the voice which would cast out this spirit, will come from the cloistered cells of superstition, and not from the temples of a true religion. But that it requires to be tempered, and chastened, and refined, and elevated, and purified, and Christianized, examples gross as earth, and glaring as the sun, exhort us on every side.

"Commerce diffuses knowledge; but there is a knowledge of evil as well as of good. Commerce spreads civilization; but civilization has its vices as well as its virtues. And is there not too much ground for the charge, that most of the trade with the savage tribes the world over, is carried on in a manner and by means calculated only to corrupt and degrade them, and even where it makes nominal proselytes to Christianity, to make them tenfold more the children of perdition than before? I look to the influence of associations like that before me, to aid in arresting this abuse, by elevating the views of those who are preparing to engage in mercantile pursuits, above the mere pursuit of gain, and by impressing upon their hearts, while they are still open to impression, a deeper sense of responsibility for the conduct of civilized man, in those relations towards these ignorant and wretched beings which commercial intercourse creates. It cannot fail to have given joy to every benevolent bosom, to find the historian of the late Exploring Expedition, bearing such unqualified testimony to the character and services of the American missionaries in the various savage islands which he visited; and it may be hoped, that the day is not far distant, when the American merchant will be found every where co-operating in the noble efforts by which the triumphs of the Cross are yet to encircle the earth!

"There is another stain upon the commercial spirit, of even deeper dye. I need not, in this presence, do more than name the African slave trade. Gentlemen, this flagitious traffic is still extensively prosecuted. Recent debates in the British Parliament would seem to show that it has of late been largely on the increase; and that the number of slaves now annually taken from the coast of Africa, is more than twice as great as it was at the commencement of the present century. Recent developments at Brazil, too, would seem to implicate our own American, and even our own New England, commerce, in 'the deep damnation of this taking off.' It is, certainly, quite too well understood, that American vessels, sailing under the American flag, are the favorite vehicles of the slave trader. No force of language, no array of epithets, can add to the sense of shame and humiliation which the simplest statement of such facts must excite in every true American heart.

"Gentlemen, we naturally look to the organized forces of our National Government to suppress these abuses of our shipping and our flag, and we all rejoice in the recent negotiation of a treaty, in the highest degree honorable to our great Massachusetts statesman, by which their suppression will be facilitated. But neither the combined navies of Great Britain and the United States, nor of the world, can accomplish this work without other aid. The co-operation of commercial men; the general combination and *conspiracy*, if I may so speak, of all who go down to the sea in ships, or are in any degree connected with business on the great waters,—the merchants and merchants' clerks, the consigners and consignees, the captains, the supercargoes, the mates and the common sailors alike; —this must come in aid of our armed squadrons, or the slave trade will still leave a stain upon commerce, which 'not all great Neptune's ocean will wash clean,' but which will rather 'the multitudinous seas incarnadine!'"

## Art. III.—THE BOSTON POST-OFFICE.

LOCATION OF THE BOSTON POST-OFFICE—GENERAL METHOD OF CONDUCTING THE BUSINESS OF THE OFFICE—INCREASE OF BOSTON AND OTHER POST-OFFICES—SALARIES OF THE CLERKS—ENGLISH STEAMERS—PENNY POSTMEN—HINTS TO LETTER WRITERS, PUBLISHERS OF NEWSPAPERS, ETC.—PRIVATE BOXES AND ACCOUNTS—DEAD LETTERS—FRANKING PRIVILEGE—NUMBER OF LETTERS DELIVERED BY CLERKS—INCREASE OF BUSINESS IN THE POST-OFFICES—INCREASE OF SPEED IN TRAVELLING, ETC.

THE BOSTON POST-OFFICE has, if we except the New York since its removal to the old Dutch Church in Nassau-street, the best accommodations of any post-office in this country. While those employed in this establishment have ample room for their operations, which are daily becoming more extensive and arduous, as the city and the country increase in business and population, the public have every accommodation that they require. Like all similar establishments in our great commercial cities, it is located in the "MERCHANTS' EXCHANGE," the place where men of business "most do congregate."* The labor in this office has been more than doubled within the last six years; and we hazard nothing in saying, that no set of individuals, in public or private life, labor more assiduously, or bring more to pass, every twenty-four hours, than do those who are employed in it.

Circumstances have made the writer of this article acquainted with the mode of doing business in the Boston Post-Office; and he has been surprised at the extent and importance of the labors performed there. But

* It will be recollected that when the proposition to remove the post-office from the old City Hall to the Merchants' Exchange was first agitated, there was much opposition expressed—no doubt honestly, too—to the change. At that time several spirited articles on this subject, pro and con, appeared in the city papers—as was the case, we remember, when the post-office was removed from Merchants' Hall, Water-street, to Washington-street, twelve years before. When it was finally removed, an article appeared in the Morning Post, giving a description of the office, in its new location, which we here insert, not on account of its furnishing any information that will be new to the citizens of Boston, but because of its general accuracy, and of the notion it will give readers in distant parts of the country of the post-office of the "literary emporium:"—

"It can be approached from three points, viz. from State-street, Lindall-street, and through a spacious avenue leading from Congress-street. These entrances during the evening are lighted with gas, and are not, like the entrance to the old post-office, crowded by idlers. The arch-way inside, where the letters are deposited and delivered, is spacious, well lighted, and affords ample protection from the inclemency of the weather. It runs north and south, parallel with Congress-street. The post-office commences on the left hand side near the great staircase of the Exchange, when the face is turned towards the south, and extends in that direction about one hundred feet. The merchants' letter boxes are placed in windows at the northern corner and along the sides, where they can ascertain at a glance the contents of their boxes. There are 1760 of these boxes. The central parts of the office, as they should be, are devoted to the delivery and receipt of the letters and newspapers of the public generally; and ladies who wish to receive letters may enter the office and receive them without being subjected to jostle and delay—which was one of the many inconveniences of the old post-office.

"The interior of the new post-office could not have been better adapted, had it been built expressly for the purpose. A large vaulted fire-proof room, lighted on every side by spacious windows, and having a superfices of 4,000 feet, stands in strong contrast with the narrow, cramped up wooden interior of the old post-office, which a spark might wrap in flames."

Soon after the post-office was removed to the Merchants' Exchange, the writer of this gave a description of the business done in the office in the Morning Post—and some of the sentences in that article he has adopted here, they being quite as good as any thing he could now write on the subject.

how many individuals there are, who do business at the office daily, that are entirely ignorant of the operations which are going on inside. The object of this article is to enlighten all such individuals, and, at the same time, to furnish our business classes with some hints that cannot but prove serviceable to them.

Let us begin with the working week. If we go into the office on Monday morning at two o'clock, we shall find a "night clerk" distributing the daily papers of the city, to be forwarded by stages and railroad cars in a few hours. He has been on duty ever since nine o'clock on the previous evening. All papers sent in before four o'clock are sure to be forwarded to their destination faithfully; but if they are a minute after that time, they lie over till the next mail. This department is in the hands of three or four competent men, who, notwithstanding they daily receive assistance from other clerks, have as much work as they can conveniently turn their hands to.

At three o'clock, we shall find several clerks at their counters, preparing letters for the morning mails, which close at five, giving them just time to pack them up and deposit them in the bags for the stage drivers and mail agents. This done, they have an hour or two for breakfast. The duty of filling the bags is a very arduous one, the contents of some of them weighing over one hundred pounds. It is similar to that of a lumper on one of the wharves, who rolls hogsheads of molasses, or piles up bags of cotton and coffee—perhaps not so laborious, but quite as intellectual. The writer of this has filled from fifty to one hundred of these bags in a day, besides attending to his writing and other clerical duties; and every clerk in the forwarding department has to do his share of this worse than tread-mill drudgery.

The morning mails having been despatched, we find a new scene opening. Long before sunrise, in the winter season especially, the porters make their appearance; and soon after, the clerks engaged in the letter and newspaper delivery department begin to stir in their respective duties. There are six or eight of these, who are under the direction of Mr. Pomeroy, the chief clerk, and an officer of efficiency and experience. He is a brother-in-law of the postmaster. The polite and faithful attendants in the general delivery department belong to his gang. The mails which have arrived during the night, or such parts of them as are left unassorted by the "early morning clerks," receive immediate attention; and at seven o'clock every thing is in readiness for the public. It is true that, sometimes, the steamboat mail, when it arrives very early, remains in the post-office untouched for a long time; and when a case of neglect like this occurs, the merchants have to wait an hour longer for their letters. In a dull season, perhaps, a matter of this kind is of very little consequence to business men; and it certainly would be requiring too much of the present clerks, to have them work all the time, though others might be found hungry enough to do so, and to take their places. As the business of the office is now conducted, they are only expected to work almost all the time—without receiving a single cent for extra labor. The ten-hour system will never find favor with a Boston postmaster, unless the clerks in the office "rise," as the colored gentlemen sometimes do at the South, or in the West Indies, and as the white slaves at the North occasionally do, and resist the oppression and injustice which weigh so heavily upon them. But this cannot be ex-

pected of the clerks, or of other men, with families, who are situated as they are—notwithstanding their salaries are so pitifully small.

At eight o'clock the clerks in the forwarding department again make their appearance, headed by that faithful servant of the public, Mr. Melcher, who, it is understood, has been over a quarter of a century in the post-office of this city and that at Portsmouth, N. H., without having any property to show for it; and, having served in almost every capacity, from a porter up, it is hardly necessary to say that he has few equals as a post-office clerk, in this country. All the letters dropped into the office pass through the hands of this gentleman and his assistants, eight in number, whose labors are more severe, and more responsible, as we think, than those of any other set of clerks. Sometimes blunders are made in casting figures on the way-bills by an inexperienced arithmetician, but to lose or missend a letter might justly be considered an event of rare occurrence. The reader will understand the difference between mistakes and blunders—the latter being set down by the most approved lexicographers as "gross or shameful."

The clerks in this department are divided into two gangs, one of which is headed by Mr. Brigham, the other by Mr. Green, two of the most capable and efficient young gentlemen in the office. They have had several years' experience, at low salaries, and what is remarkable, they have lived through it, without taking the benefit of the bankrupt act, or stealing a dollar from the thousands of money letters which have passed through their hands.

Mails are made up, for different parts of the country, every half hour in the day—from nine o'clock in the morning until half-past four or five in the afternoon, at which time the "evening mails" begin to come in, thick and fast, furnishing all hands in the office full employment until nine or ten o'clock.

It is not necessary to say that mails are coming in as well as going out the whole day. The steamboat and other mails of the morning are hardly distributed before those from Lowell, Concord, Providence, Dover, New Bedford, Worcester, Portsmouth, Portland, &c., are announced; and the contents of these mails are distributed as fast as they arrive. Not a minute is lost. The bags are promptly opened, and the letters are charged, assorted, and delivered, with all becoming expedition. In no part of the office, at this time, is there the least delay. In closing the morning mails, the great Eastern mail, the steamboat and some other afternoon mails, an accelerated movement of the clerks is indispensable, and all have full employment. Much time is daily consumed in answering the thousand and one questions of those who visit the office on business. Some of these questions are important in their nature, while others are of the most trivial character, and well calculated to vex the patience of Job himself, if he had to stand at the windows and answer them. We have before now heard pretty hard cursing and swearing on both sides of the partition; but the clerks always come out ahead of their ugly customers—owing to the fact, as we suppose, that they work on Sundays!

From two o'clock in the morning till ten in the evening, there is a constant stream of mail matter flowing into the office, and diffusing itself in every part of it. At six o'clock in the evening three or four hundred letter mails—embracing, chiefly, towns in Vermont, New Hampshire, Maine and Massachusetts, are closed by the clerks who were at the office at three in

the morning; and then, unless a British steamer arrives, their labors close for the day. If a steamer comes in, they have to work on till midnight—sometimes later. Another set of clerks continue at the counters until nine o'clock, putting in a state of forwardness several hundred bundles of letters for Cape Cod, Worcester, and the Western country, Connecticut, Maine, and the principal towns within forty miles of Boston, which they close early on the following morning.

And thus the work goes on, from day to day, until Sunday, when the labor is so much diminished, generally speaking, as to require about half the force of the office to attend to it. But when, from any unexpected cause, there is a press of work on Sundays, either from the non-arrival of the mails at the regular hours they are due, or the sudden appearance in our waters of a British steamer, then all hands are called, and kept on duty until every thing is put in proper shape for the mails, and for distribution at home. So rigid is the rule in this respect, that the porter has been known to call the clerks out of church on a Sunday afternoon, during divine service, and one of them has been told by the postmaster, on his coming into the office rather tardily, that he "must not let his religion interfere with his post-office duties." This, though a little severe, may be very proper. The public must judge.

The operations in the Boston Post-Office do not differ materially from those in other large offices. We have not spoken of the rating of letters, the stamping and sorting of them, and a thousand other minutiæ incident to the business. It would be labor lost, to attempt to give such an account of these operations as would be intelligible to the general reader. Way-bills accompany every bundle of letters received, and every bundle sent out, of which a record is kept, and a duplicate copy made for the department at Washington, to use in the settlement of the accounts of the several postmasters. In the hurry of business, mistakes in these bills frequently occur in the Boston office. This cannot be prevented. We have known the Maine distribution bill to be returned from Portland three days in succession, to have important errors corrected in the addition of simple columns of figures. All this was partly owing to the hurry of business, and in some degree to a defect in the early education of one of the smartest clerks in the office—a well-favored gentleman, who could fill bags faster and closer than any other post-office clerk that we have ever cast our eyes upon, this side of Washington—and we have looked in upon the natives "all about the lot." We think Dogberry is the philosopher who is made by Shakespeare to say that reading and writing, and cyphering, come by nature.

### INCREASE OF THE BOSTON POST-OFFICE—THE SALARIES OF CLERKS, ETC.

The Boston Post-Office, on the score of profit to the General Post-Office Department at Washington, holds a distinguished rank. New York, of course, always takes the lead of her sister cities, and doubtless will always take the lead of them, in furnishing the Postmaster General resources to manage, with success, the great and important trusts committed to his hands. Philadelphia comes next, but is far, very far, behind the great "commercial emporium." Boston is third in rank, and at this present writing, treads close upon the heels of the "city of brotherly love."

By the Blue Book of 1843, it appears that the gross proceeds of the New York Office, from July 1, 1841, to June 30, 1843, a period of two years, were $674,383, or $337,192 per annum; of Philadelphia, $315,677,

or $157,839 per annum; of Boston, $196,912, or $98,456 per annum; of Baltimore, $166,752, or $83,376 per annum; of New Orleans,* $163,154, or $81,577. / Since the above returns were made, Boston, in a comparative sense, has been going ahead of all her sister cities, both in business and population. That the receipts at our post-office have increased in the same ratio, is a very natural and just conclusion. The British steamers have done much to swell the amount of business at the Boston office. Our numerous railroads have done something, also, in the same way; but the immense increase of business brings with it little or no increase of clerks, or in the salaries of the very limited and insufficient number already employed there; but, as the Frenchman said, "quite the contrary." And yet Mr. Postmaster General Barry said, in his last Annual Report, that "in this country postmasters and their clerks are paid by a commission on the amount of postage collected." If the labor in the Boston office were to be doubled in one little month, we sincerely believe that the present clerks would be required to do it all, without much extra assistance, and without having one cent added to their salaries. And we as sincerely believe that most of the clerks would endure the imposition, gross as it would be, without remonstrating against the injustice of it.

When the late Postmaster General, Mr. Wickliffe, was in Boston, in June, 1843, his attention was called to this subject by Mr. Gordon, then postmaster, and by the clerks, who petitioned for an increase of pay. That gentleman, after due investigation and deliberation, decided that he could do nothing in the premises. He is said to have expressed much regret that he could not do something, as the petition of the clerks was reasonable, and ought to be allowed; but there was no law that would justify his increasing the salary of a single individual in the office. He admitted that the labors of the petitioners were excessively severe, and they were so—and are growing more arduous and perplexing every day.

Notwithstanding the business of the Boston office has more than doubled within a few years, the salaries of the clerks have chiefly remained permanent, and without any great increase of the number of operatives. The clerks now work more hours than they ever did before; and yet they receive nothing for extra labor, or overwork, as is the case in almost every branch of mechanical business.

THE ENGLISH STEAMERS.

In the summer season two British mail steamers† arrive and depart every month—from November to May there is only one. Letters are arriving at the post-office by almost every mail for these steamers, and they are made up at the departure of each of them, to the last hour. Mr. Charles A. Green, one of the most intelligent and competent clerks in the office, makes up the foreign mails. He also takes care of the foreign letters, until the steamer is ready to receive them. As fast as they arrive, they are separated from other letters, put away carefully, and, a day or two before her

* This highly favored city had no less than four different postmasters in about two years.

† These steamers carry a mail for the English Post-office Department, and are not allowed to transport letters out of the mail. The postage on every letter from Liverpool to Boston is one English shilling, to be paid at Liverpool when the letter is mailed. From Boston to Liverpool the postage is the same, payable at Liverpool if the letter is deliverable there, or with the addition of inland postage if deliverable in any other part of the kingdom.

[illegible] to assort them, by putting them into pigeon holes, thus: —

| [illegible] | Liverpool. | England— other towns in. | Ireland. | Scotland. |
|---|---|---|---|---|

| Manchester, Birmingham and Bristol. | Halifax. | The Provinces | British Possessions in the W. I. |
|---|---|---|---|

As fast as the letters are assorted, they are counted out in parcels of one hundred each, done up in a strong brown paper, numbered, directed as above, put into separate bags, and labelled—those for London by themselves. Those for France and other parts of the Continent are sent to the London Post-Office, where they are sorted, done up, directed, and forwarded. Those for the British Provinces in New Brunswick and Nova Scotia, and for the British Possessions in the West Indies, are sent to Halifax, and thence they are forwarded to their several places of destination. Letters for Manchester, Birmingham, Bristol, and other towns in England, go to the Liverpool office. On the day of the departure of a steamer from Boston, thousands of letters are poured into the post-office from all quarters; and these require the attention of most of the clerks for several hours—but the whole operation is under the supervision of Mr. Green, who has managed it long and faithfully. At the hour of one, P. M., the mail bags, about twenty in number, are ready for delivery, and the mail agent takes them into a cart, and goes on his way rejoicing. A gun is fired, and the steamer is off!

To give the reader some idea of the business thrown into the post-office by the arrival of a steamer, it may be well to give the following statement of the letter postage on the contents of the bags received by one of them, according to the old rates. We will imagine that there are some 15,000 or 20,000 letters received, besides about 20 bags of newspapers, containing 40 or 50 bushels. These are all stamped, distributed, and forwarded within twelve hours:—

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| New York, city, (letter postage,) | $2,469 | Michigan, | $ 160 |
| " distribution, | 265 | Savannah, | 78 |
| New Orleans, | 757 | Columbus, Geo., | 87 |
| Philadelphia, | 572 | Washington city, | 125 |
| Charleston, S. C., | 189 | Augusta, Geo., | 50 |
| St. Louis, | 55 | Cincinnati, | 67 |
| Richmond, | 195 | Baltimore, | 97 |
| Pittsburgh, | 46 | Wheeling, | 210 |
| Mobile, | 141 | Other Places, | 1,200 |
| | | | $6,823 |

This account is taken at random. We have known some postage bills to amount the above by two or three thousand dollars; and then, again, we have known them to fall short of it considerably. There is no uniformity in the quantity of the contents of the mails, either going or coming. In despatching a mail, the labor is not so great or urgent, as it is when one arrives. In the latter case all hands are called by the porters, without "respect to persons," to the day, or the hour of the night. The postmaster is generally at his desk when a steamer arrives.

THE PENNY POSTMEN.

We believe there are now five individuals who are engaged in the arduous, and frequently vexatious employment, of penny postmen, three of whom have been employed in that vocation for twelve years or more, and the public are as well acquainted with their agreeable faces—made a little hard, perhaps, by exposure to the weather, by old age, and shaving notes, as they are with their own family bibles, and probably see them much oftener. At daybreak every morning these faithful men are at their posts, selecting the letters and papers for their respective routes. At seven o'clock they commence their rounds, which last till the afternoon. Rain or shine, blow high or blow low, they repeat this same old story six days in the week, carrying joy to some families, and tidings of sadness to others; and finally, on the seventh, repose in comfort and security in the bosoms of their own families, with "none to molest or make them afraid." In this respect they are more highly favored than the clerks, whom they sometimes call their "brother slaves," all of whom have to work, more or less, on Sundays. Indeed, the labors of the clerks commence on Monday morning and end on Sunday night. According to an excellent and long established rule of the Boston office, the penny postmen who leave letters at all places where they are requested to leave them, have to settle their postage accounts every afternoon; and yet they themselves trust out a large amount every quarter, to their regular customers. They may be considered sub-offices, conducted on an economical scale; they keep their loose change in their breeches pocket, and their accounts in their heads—this saves the expense of both chalk and clerk hire.

We have sometimes heard people find fault with these faithful public officers; that one of them was too polite—as polite as a French dancing master; that another was hard of hearing, and could not comprehend quickly; and that a third, whose route extends among the polished circles of Broad-street, was as "gruff as a Russian bear," &c. It is an old maxim "that it is a very easy matter to find fault;" but we doubt whether more faithful men could be found, than the present incumbents, to discharge the duties which are confided to them—taking all their natural defects into consideration. If they are sometimes a little cross-grained themselves, we would ask, how many hundreds of cross-grained individuals do they come in contact with in going their daily rounds? how many peevish, ugly dispositions? how many mean, pitiful, fault-finding souls, who pay their postage grudgingly? and finally, how many that are too ignorant to spell their own names, and into whose heads the penny postmen have to beat information with an almost sledge-hammer force? Yes, we think they do very well in their vocation. It behoves them only to be as Chesterfieldian and agreeable as possible. The *suaviter in modo* at all times and by all means; matters of state will then roll on tranquilly, and the "country be safe."

But let us describe a scene which actually took place in the fourth story of a house in the vicinity of Fort Hill, between one of the penny postmen and an Irish lady named McThump. After a long search, Mr. Spinney finds his customer, and pulls out of his box a letter.

*Spin.* Here's a letter for you, ma'm.

*Wom.* A what!

*S.* A letter, ma'm.

*W.* What the divil have I to do with a letter? Who's it from? (Turn-

ing it over, and examining the superscription attentively, without being able to read it.)

*S.* I can't tell, ma'm. *We* don't know that.

*W.* Can't tell? What the divil did you bring it here for, then? Take it home again, y'r blackguard, [throwing herself into a belligerent attitude,] and never bring me another letter, unless you can tell who it's from.

The penny postman hastily retires—the wild Irish woman in hot pursuit with a broomstick in her hand; and as soon as Spinney reaches the bottom of the stairs, he discharges a volley of blessings upon the universal Irish nation, and quietly puts Mrs. McThump's letter back into his box!

The senior penny postman is named *White.* A French gentleman in Washington-street understanding he had a letter for him, called at one of the pigeon holes of the office about a year since, and with some earnestness inquired if Monsieur *Brown*, the letter carrier, was in? The clerk told him there was no such man belonging to the office. Yes der is, (replied the impatient Frenchman,) he bring a letter for me at my place dis morning, when I was out. That must be a mistake, sir, replied the clerk. Mr. *White* goes by your store. Ah, ah! exclaimed the Frenchman exultingly—*dat is de man*—it is Monsieur White and not Monsieur Brown, who has de letter for me. This is only one of a thousand similar blunders that occur at the post-office every year. It would not be difficult to write a volume of amusing anecdotes on this prolific subject.

### HINTS TO LETTER WRITERS, PUBLISHERS OF NEWSPAPERS, ETC.

The punctuality observed in the Boston Post-Office is remarkable; but in no one thing is it more so than in the closing of the mails. In ninety-nine cases out of a hundred, any person who is behind the time one minute is sure to be disappointed—he might as well be one hour late. Let this fact be remembered by all who have important letters to forward at a certain time. Through the delay or inattention of those to whom letters are entrusted, many of them are frequently kept back beyond the time appointed for closing the mails. This fact has frequently come under our own observation. We have often seen even important money letters kept back one mail from the cause we speak of; and in times of a great money pressure in the business circles, such as we have had, and shall have agian—as sure as the sun moves on in his glorious course from day to day—this is a matter of some interest to the banks, and to merchants, traders, and all other business men, who cannot be too particular in this respect. Post-office time *may* differ a few minutes from State-street time. The city clocks are always treacherous—they remind one of an Irish funeral, where there is a brief striking distance between the mourners. No attention is paid to them by the clerks. There are two clocks in the office, one of which we have known to differ from the other two or three minutes, and even more, for several days. The clerks generally adopt the quickest time, that being most convenient to themselves, without the least regard to the real time, or to the wishes or interests of those outside. There is nothing unnatural or remarkable in all this, especially as they have a standing rule, from which they never deviate—and that is, to do up their work as quick as possible, and be off—always having their eyes fixed upon the dial which travels fastest, and always being sure to "hit the very fore-

head of old time," in taking letters from the drop or receiving boxes at the closing of every mail.

To the publishers of newspapers we would throw out a few hints. During an "experience" of eight months in the post-office as a clerk, it was part of our duty to assist in filling the mail bags; consequently, we had ample opportunity of noticing the manner in which the newspapers from the several offices in the city were packed. In a majority of cases, they were done up in strong brown paper, and directed in a fair, bold hand, which enabled the clerks to assort them with facility; but in the practice of a foolish economy, many of them are done up in flimsy, rotten papers—often in old exchange papers—and directed with pale ink, in an illegible hand-writing. In all cases, a strong brown paper and good ink should be used; and they who direct the bundles should be able to write a good hand, for the business of distributing newspapers into the different boxes necessarily requires despatch. A clerk, at this work, has hardly time to think; to decipher hieroglyphics, he has neither time nor inclination. When the superscription on a bundle cannot be read, the motto is, "let it slide," that is, throw it into some box, and let it take its chance in the world. Some of the boxes into which packages of papers are thrown are four and five feet deep; to reach the contents of them a rake is used, the iron teeth of which are two and a half inches long. This rake is exercised with as little delicacy as an active farmer uses his rake among weeds and stones in an open field. If it comes in contact with a heavy bundle, the outside wrapper of which is rotten, some of the papers inside are sure to be disfigured, if not torn in pieces—and a disappointment to subscribers ensues. Of course the publisher is blamed; and, at the same time, he is ignorant of the true cause of the difficulty. In this, as in some other things, "an ounce of prevention is worth a pound of cure." Mr. Bezin, an old and intelligent printer, has the superintendence of this department, and he appears to have a marked affection for the "goods, wares and merchandise" of the whole craft. He has three or four assistants.*

THE PRIVATE BOXES—PRIVATE ACCOUNTS, ETC.

It is generally understood that the private letter boxes, in every large city, are a source of considerable profit to the gentleman who fills the office of postmaster. In the Boston office there are considerably over two thousand of them, for each of which a premium of two dollars is received. For the newspaper boxes, of which there are over one hundred, four dollars per annum each is charged.

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* In the same department in the London Post-Office there are not less than 250 clerks. The number of newspapers despatched every week is about half a million, weighing over fifty tons. The weight of the papers passing through that office every Saturday night is estimated at twelve tons. This work has doubled within the last ten years. There is great security in the transmission of papers in the London office: no instance has occurred for years of any person in that establishment having been detected in purloining a paper. Mistakes, however, are frequent—and the publishers are sorely vexed with complaints from their subscribers. The number of clerks in the letter forwarding and other departments of the London Post-Office is but little less than a thousand; and it is found necessary to increase this number monthly, so rapidly does the labor of the office increase. At a levee of the London District Post-Officers, held some months since, there were present upwards of eight hundred persons connected with the establishment, including letter-carriers, sub-sorters, assistant-inspectors, and others. What an immense, unwieldy establishment that must be! It is a little world of itself; and yet we have understood that the most perfect order and quietness prevail, and that "every thing goes on like clock work."

We have heard it stated that not less than two thousand five hundred [illegible] are kept with public institutions, merchants, and others, at the Boston office, all of which are settled quarterly. When a debtor is remiss in paying his bill, he is politely reminded of his delinquency, by putting a piece of blank paper in his box. This department is in the hands of Mr. Ewing, a worthy gentleman, who has had much experience in his responsible situation. He certainly duns with modesty and judgment. Some of the banking institutions of the city, under the old law, have been known to pay from $500 to $1,000, and even as high as $1,200 per quarter; while several of our heaviest mercantile and brokerage establishments have paid from $150 to $700 per quarter. The business of giving credit lies entirely with the postmaster, who does it as a matter of courtesy and accommodation, and not as a part of his duty, or because there is any law in existence giving him liberty or requiring him to do so. He is responsible for all losses; but those having dealings with him are, almost to a man, so honorable and punctual in their payments, that the losses do not amount to a fractional part of one per cent a year, even in times of the greatest pressure in the money market. The credit system is an old one, and is said to be quite an accommodation to merchants and public institutions. The above fact is highly creditable to the business character of Boston.

### DEAD LETTERS.

The dead letters which accumulate in the Boston Post-Office amount to a very considerable number annually. These are sent to the dead letter office in Washington, every quarter, where they are opened and examined; and if any of them contain valuable information or enclosures, they are sent back again as "*valuable letters*," with directions to advertise them as such. Several letters of this kind are returned every quarter, and some of them have been known to contain considerable amounts of money. At the office in Washington, there are three or four men employed in opening dead letters—which are merely opened, generally speaking, and not carefully read; but when one is found to contain money, drafts, checks, or other valuable papers, it is examined, and a record of it is made in a book kept for that purpose, for future reference. The postage on the dead letters sent from the Boston office alone, under the old law, exceeded three thousand dollars per annum. These letters fill several bags every quarter, and it would take a regiment of clerks to read attentively the contents of all the dead letters that are sent to Washington from different parts of the country. We believe that after they reach their destination, and have been opened, they are destroyed by fire—pretty much in the same way that bills of broken banks are destroyed at the South and West.

### THE FRANKING PRIVILEGE.

We have read much of the liberties taken by members of Congress with the franking privilege—or, more properly speaking, of the abuse of that privilege. It cannot be doubted that many of these gentlemen frequently abuse the privilege they legally enjoy, by forwarding through the mail articles of dress and other bulky and unmailable matter. But they can do this with impunity—they certainly have done it. Not so, however, with the plain, honest, unprivileged citizen, who is taxed for every post-office accommodation he receives. A member of Congress at Washington may send, under his frank, to a brother or a son in the far West, a fashionable

silk vest, and the government will not be one cent the richer for it; but let a poor seaman in Boston, belonging to an Eastern coaster, send through the mail to his "sweet-heart" in the state of Maine, a pair of coarse woollen stockings to keep her legs warm, and he is taxed three dollars for postage! We have frequently seen wedding gloves, and other light articles of dress, pass through the mail, charged with full letter postage—so much per ounce weight. And we remember, on one occasion, to have handled two packages, directed to "John Baker, Woolwich, Me.," and weighing two ounces and three-quarters each, the postage on which was five dollars and fifty cents. They were mailed at Providence, and contained, each of them, a pair of very coarse woollen socks, which could not have cost more than twenty-five cents. Occurrences of this kind are not frequent, it is true; and they invariably originate with men in humble life, of limited means, and more limited general information. We have never been able to comprehend, however, the reason or the justice of a law which taxes an honest poor citizen five or six dollars for doing that which a member of Congress may do free of all expense. If there is any equality in such matters, it is not the kind of equality for which our democratic and revolutionary forefathers contended and struggled with the mother country.

NUMBER OF LETTERS DELIVERED—THE DELIVERY CLERKS, ETC.

The number of letters delivered by the clerks of the Boston Post-Office, in 1843 and 1844, has been estimated at from one million to twelve hundred thousand for each year; or about one hundred thousand per month. Since the new law went into operation the number has increased astonishingly. The difficulties attending the faithful discharge of the duties of a clerk in the delivery department are often perplexing; and it is frequently the case that the clerks are censured without just cause. We have seen this repeatedly, and been surprised at the patience exercised by them under very trying circumstances. And it is due to candor to say, that we have seen times when their bad temper got the mastery of their patience and good-humor, and they have been a little restless and uncivil. But this is not to be wondered at. We have heard clerks at the general delivery pigeon holes abused by uncivil and ignorant people on the outside, some dozen times a day, for not producing letters that were not in the office, but were supposed to be there by those who called for them. We have heard an apple-woman ask one of them a dozen foolish questions, almost in the same breath, and before the clerk could get a word in edgewise, in answer to her, she would discharge a volley of billingsgate, and then, like the witches in Macbeth, she would suddenly "evaporate into thin air."

INCREASE OF SPEED IN TRAVELLING.—INCREASE OF BUSINESS IN THE POST-OFFICES, ETC.

A few days since, while looking over a file of the "Exchange Advertiser," published in Boston in 1786, by Peter Edes, at 85 Marlboro'-street, (now Washington,) our attention was attracted to the list of letters advertised by the postmaster at that time. We considered it quite a curiosity, and we have no doubt that our readers will so consider it. From this advertisement, which we copy below, they can see how much inconvenience the people, living in towns within fifty miles of Boston, had to submit to, from the absence of a regular mail communication between the interior and the metropolis. There were then no regular mails made up

for the country towns, and the Boston Post-Office was the only distribution office of any magnitude in Massachusetts. The mail ran through to Portland once a week, stopping at Salem and Portsmouth, in which there were, also, distribution offices. It was several days on the road, performing a distance which, at the present day, is passed over in four or five hours. When we contrast the snail-like pace of the mails at that day, with the almost lightning-speed of those of the present, we are irresistibly led to exclaim as old Cockletop does in "Modern Antiques"—wonderful! wonderful! wonderful! At that time a letter was about a week in going from Boston to New-York, and some ten days to Philadelphia. But these facts are familiar to every intelligent reader, and we will not enlarge upon that point.* The document to which we refer, (the original form of which we have preserved,) from Mr. Edes' paper, speaks for itself, and furnishes much "food for reflection." Who will dare to say, hereafter, that the United States is not a great and a growing country!

[*From the Boston Exchange Advertiser of December*, 1786.]

LIST OF LETTERS REMAINING AT THE POST-OFFICE, BOSTON, DEC. 28, 1786.

*** Those names which have no towns annexed to them, are of Boston.

A.—Fisher Ames, Dedham.

B.—George Bacon, Roxbury; Thomas Beals, Cohasset; Peter Barton, James Brown.

C.—Alexander Cruickshanks, Capt. James Coffin, Capt. Jason Chester, Groton; Daniel Crosby, Samuel Curtis, Braintree; Charles Cambridge, Polly Carver, Taunton; Benjamin Callahan, James Christie, Plymouth; Shadrach Chase, Freetown.

D.—Jonathan Dunnam, Medford; William Downe.

F.—Mr. Fessenden, Little Cambridge.

G.—Robert Gordon, Roxbury; Anstiss Greene, Peter Griffes, William Gardiner, Littleton; Patty Greenleaf.

H.—Dr. Amos Hollbrooke, Milton; E. Heard, Lancaster; Mr. Hutchins, David Hoar, Concord; Jeremiah Hill, Benjam Hecters.

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* It may be well, however, in this connection, to allude to one of the expresses of the enterprising editors of the Boston Atlas—that which they projected, and accomplished, in 1844, and by which the gubernatorial vote of the whole state of Massachusetts was received at their office on the night of the election—in its way, we do not hesitate to assert, the greatest feat that was ever performed in this or any other country. The Worcester Ægis speaking of it at the time, said:—"The Atlas has outdone itself in the success of its extraordinary express. Nothing of the kind in the history of expresses in this country has equalled it, in the extent, the accuracy, and the expedition of its returns. The voting in the towns closed at about five o'clock, P. M. Between that time and three o'clock the next morning, a space of ten hours, returns were received from 300 of the 306 towns in the Commonwealth, including the most distant and inaccessible points, Williamstown, the northwest corner of Berkshire, Provincetown, the extremity of Cape Cod and Nantucket, 30 miles out in the Atlantic ocean. At a little after seven o'clock the returns were all arranged and set up, and the sheets struck off and sent upon their flight to every quarter of the state." General Twitchell, of Worcester, managed this express for the five western counties, and so perfect were his arrangements that 147 of the 152 towns in those counties were received in Worcester by twelve o'clock, though some of them were brought more than 90 miles on horseback. The Ægis adds:—"The night was very dark, and of course the riding dangerous. Probably some accident occasioned the loss of the five towns. Mr. Twitchell himself received the votes of Franklin county at New Salem, 35 miles from this place, at a quarter past nine o'clock, and brought them on horseback in two hours and ten minutes to Worcester, one horse falling with him at the tip-top of his speed, without any serious injury to the gallant rider. Arriving at Worcester and receiving the returns from his agents, he took an extra car on the Boston railroad, and delivered them at the Atlas office before two o'clock. Remaining there until the papers were struck off, he took the eight o'clock train in his return with packages for the principal western towns of the State, and arrived here at half-past nine o'clock, looking as fresh and vigorous as if just risen from his morning slumbers."

J.—John Jennings, J. Johnson, Andrew Jackson, Gen. Michael Jackson, Newton.

K.—Elizabeth Knodle, John Kenny.

L.—Josiah Lewis, Capt. Joshua Leonard, Rainham; John Lewis, Lewistown; Robert Lithhead.

M.—Elizabeth Morris, George Murray, Joseph Murray, Nathaniel B. Mure, Levi Mann, Hanover; Major Miner.

O.—Josiah Oakes, Cohasset.

P.—William Pennyman, John Parson, Solomon Peffreys, Gen. Rufus Putnam, Rutland; Jacob Parker, Malden; Enoch Perkins, Bridgewater; Mrs. Peak.

R.—Robert Robengran, Richard Richardson, Cambridge; Isabel Redman, Moses Roach, Andrew Ramsay.

S.—Benjamin Smith, Barnstable; John Smith, Benjamin Slater, Benjamin Stephens, Jonathan Smith, Lexington; Powers Smith, Mrs. Sweeney.

T.—Thomas Thomson, Franklin; Zilpha Tisdale, Taunton.

V.—John Vollantine.

W.—Thomas Walker, Sippera White, 2.

Let the reader compare the above with the list of letters published in the "Boston Post," or the "Times," twice a month, and if he do not find something to set his mind in motion, he must have little brains and less curiosity. We believe the number published monthly is not less than fifteen thousand for the city of Boston alone! J. L. H.

## Art. IV.—THE BEAR VALLEY COAL BASIN AND BEAR MOUNTAIN RAILROAD.

The writer of an article in the number of the Merchants' Magazine for November, 1845, on the first coal field of Pennsylvania, concludes a very interesting description of the region with a few misstatements, doubtless arising from a want of proper information in relation to the Bear Valley Coal Basin, and a project intimately connected therewith, which has been pronounced by eminent engineers and geologists, to be one of the most important in Pennsylvania.

The mineral resources of the "Iron State," notwithstanding so much has been written on the subject, are but imperfectly known, or appreciated when known, either by the large class of her citizens engaged in their development, or by those whose especial qualifications for such examination would warrant a general belief that a portion of our country so interesting and valuable as the anthracite coal fields of Pennsylvania, would have received from them a most thorough investigation. It is equally discreditable to American science and enterprise, that a discovery of the location and superior character of valuable deposits of coal and iron ore in the immediate vicinity of our large cities, should have been left to this late day; and although recent explorations have developed a region richer in these minerals, than any other in the known world, possessing a combination of advantages unequalled for the delivery of coal at the mouth of the mine, and for the manufacture of anthracite iron at the least possible cost, there can hardly be a doubt but that the united labors of the geologist and chemist, in a critical examination of known and supposed localities of mineral deposits, would be largely rewarded. Not only a discovery of coal and iron ores, highly valuable and similar in character to what are known to exist in other parts of the world, but which have not

as yet been found in this country, might reasonably be expected. But there is, certainly, nothing improbable in the supposition, that within the mountains of Pennsylvania may be contained ores of iron, unequalled in richness of yield and facility of working.

The intelligent and disinterested visiter of the various regions furnishing the present supply of anthracite coal, will not fail to remark, that the openings have not been made where exist the greatest advantages which the field offers, for the delivery of coal in market at the least cost. The Schuylkill district, in 1845, supplied an amount equal to more than one-half the entire quantity of anthracite coal mined in the United States during that year; and there the cost of delivering coal in cars at the starting point of the route to a market, is greater than in any other district of the anthracite fields.

The southern, or as it is usually termed, first anthracite coal field of Pennsylvania, near the western extremity, is divided into two branches or forks, making an angle with each other of thirty degrees. The northern branch, denominated the "Bear Valley Coal Basin," is twelve miles in length, and formed by two parallel mountains, nine hundred feet in height; the outside of their bases being about two miles apart. In each of these mountains are comprised upwards of forty veins of coal, dipping towards the intermediate valley on a slope of fifty degrees, and varying in thickness from four to thirty feet, with an average breast of one thousand feet in height above water level. A single vein ten miles in length and ten feet in thickness, contains nearly forty million tons of coal above water level; it will be seen, therefore, that should this region furnish all the anthracite coal used in our country, and the demand continue to increase with its present rapidity, many hundred years must elapse before there will be a necessity of resorting to the coal lying below water level; the procuring of which, besides the danger invariably attending such operations, increase the additional expense of machinery requisite to keep the mines dry, and raise the coal to the surface. The region will be opened by a tunnel sufficiently large for the outlet of one million tons of coal per annum, passing through the south mountain about one hundred feet above the base; an arrangement securing the intersection of all the veins at a depth varying from four hundred to eight hundred feet below their out-crop. The position of the coal in the mountain is evidently most favorable for mining, as it may be excavated and made to pass without handling into the cars conveying it to market.

This advantage is peculiar to coal thus situated; when found in horizontal veins, even if above the water level of the surrounding country, the cost of delivering it in cars is enhanced by the handling which becomes necessary; while the inconveniences, and consequently additional cost of mining coal from vertical veins, are too apparent to require explanation.

From a report made by Professor Hall, of the "New York State Geological Department," on the coal and iron ores of the Bear Valley Coal Basin, the following is extracted:

"In conclusion, I may remark, that the great number of veins, their regularity and uniformity, with the increased quantity of coal thus brought together, exceeds any other coal field within our knowledge. The dip of the veins being at an angle of from forty to fifty degrees with the horizon, offers greater facilities for mining than if they were horizontal; while they are, more certainly, less liable to faults,

and more easily and safely worked than vertical veins. Owing to this amount of dip, the coal is moved downwards by its own gravity, and all labor of handling or lifting is saved, which, in horizontal, or slightly dipping veins, is an important item.

"In a future report, I will endeavor to show in what manner it is superior to any other coal region which can come into competition with it; but I may remark, in general terms, that there is no one with half so many workable veins in so small a space, and no other offering the same, or equal facilities, for mining and transportation.

"In comparing it with a region like that of Pottsville, we may remark that one point of great superiority, lies in the immense amount of coal above water level, thus saving all the expense of engines and fixtures for raising either the water or the coal to the surface, as has just been stated. In another important point, we find the veins all uniform and continuous, and embraced in a comparatively small space; while in Pottsville, and other similar localities, the veins are spread over a large extent of surface, and rising but little above the water level. Such a feature as the latter requires numerous branch roads to bring the coal to some central point; as we there find, while in the Bear Valley region, all that is required, in addition to the main track, are lateral roads, of cheap construction, extending into the mines on either side. The opening of the tunnel will perfect all the natural facilities for mining, and afford a course of drainage for the water, and proper access to the veins of South Mountain.

"In reviewing all the circumstances connected with this coal field, the superior quality of the coal for fuel, and its proximity to a market which it will always command, there can be no hesitation in saying that this project offers inducements superior to any other in the state of Pennsylvania."

It would seem that the natural advantages of this region, together with the admirable system which has been adapted for working it, are so great, as to reduce the cost of mining and delivering the coal in cars, to a minimum. The quality of the coal in this basin closely resembles that of the Schuylkill district, and for domestic use, or for generating steam, is highly desirable. The report above quoted says:

"The quality of the coal has been determined by experience, and is in the highest degree satisfactory. It is a free-burning anthracite, of the best quality. The coal from the veins on the north side affords a grey ash, while those on the south side yield a reddish, or fawn-colored ash. Its qualities as a fuel for domestic purposes, are of the highest order; and, in Harrisburgh, where it is much used, it sells for $1 00 per ton more than the other coals brought to that place. It is particularly adapted for use in open grates, and from its free-burning qualities, a small quantity can be ignited, while in the harder, white-ash coals, larger quantities are required. A less portion of draft is sufficient to produce free ignition than in most of the other anthracites, and, consequently, it is well adapted to purposes where a constant heat, with moderate draft, is required."

But however great the quantity, superior the quality, and reduced the cost of mining the coal, and delivering it in cars, to ensure extensive operations, and to become a source of profit to the proprietors, it is essential that the distance of the coal lands from a market, should not be so great as to make the cost of transportation more than counterbalance the advantages possessed over less favored, but nearer regions.

Among the many circumstances favorable to a large business, and which force conviction of the Bear Valley region becoming, at no distant day, the scene of mining operations, greater in extent than our country has yet witnessed, it is not among the least important, that while the mines are nearer tide-water than those of any other district, save one, the transportation will be of the most economical description.

The construction of the Bear Mountain Railroad, twenty-eight miles in length, extending from the coal-tunnel to Dauphin, on the Susquehanna river, eight miles above Harrisburgh, whence there is a canal capable of passing 66 ton boats to Havre-de-Grace, will complete a line of internal improvements between the coal mines of Bear Valley and tide-water. This railroad is scarcely less extraordinary in character than the coal field situated at its terminus, and for the cheap transportation of freight presents facilities not only unequalled, but unsurpassable. On a road doing an equal amount of business in each direction, it is apparent that the capacity of a locomotive would be greatest where the line is straight and the track level; but where, as is the case with coal railroads generally, the business consists in the transportation of freight in one direction only, the condition is materially changed; and, under such circumstances, the cost of transportation will be a minimum where the line of the road is straight, and the grade descends at such rate, that to take down a loaded train, and return with the empty cars, require the exertion of the same power. The line of the Bear Mountain Railroad is such as to fulfil practically these conditions; the grade, for the entire length of the road, having a descent of 17 feet per mile, and there being no curve of less radius than 1,910 feet. It is demonstrable, that an engine of the same capacity with those used on the Reading Railroad, can take down this grade 1,300 tons of coal in one train, and return to the mines with the empty cars. In anticipation of a business of no common magnitude, the projectors of this road have duly improved the extraordinary natural advantages, and made most extensive arrangements for the transhipment of coal at the Pennsylvania canal.

The writer of the article alluded to entertains the opinion that Bear Valley coal could not be delivered to the consumer for a price which would bring it into competition with coal from Pottsville. To what extent he is correct, may be inferred from the following estimate of the cost of Bear Valley coal in our large cities:

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Mining,..... | $00 40 | per ton. |
| Breaking, screening, and delivering in cars,..... | 00 10 | " |
| Railroad transportation to Dauphin,..... | 00 90 | " |
| Canal-tolls, and freight from Dauphin to Havre-de-Grace, 80 miles, at 1¼ cts. per ton per mile,..... | 1 00 | " |
| Waste,..... | 10 | " |
| Unloading at Havre-de-Grace,..... | 05 | " |
| Profits to Railroad and Mining Company,..... | 50 | " |
| Total cost and selling-price at Havre-de-Grace,..... | $2 35 | " |
| Tonnage to Baltimore,..... | 25 | " |
| | | " |
| Selling price at Baltimore,..... | $2 60 | " |

The freight from Havre-de-Grace to New York, is $1 30 cts. per ton; to Boston, $1 55 cts. per ton; making the selling price of Bear Valley coal, at the former place, $3 65, and at the latter, $3 90 per ton. The above estimate is not speculative, merely; the various items are at rates now charged for similar service, and may be relied on as essentially correct. The lowest selling-price of Schuylkill coal, in New York city, during the last ten years, was $5 50 per ton; the average of the last three years being about $6 00. It will be seen, therefore, that while the region will enjoy a monopoly of the coal trade of the Susquehanna Valley, in-

cluding Baltimore, where it may be afforded at a price beyond competition, it will be enabled to compete successfully with the Pottsville district, in supplying the cities of New York, Boston, and Philadelphia.

The railroad company own a large body of coal-lands in the basin, at the terminus of the road, and a profit of 50 cents per ton, on a business of half a million of tons per annum, will pay over 20 per cent on the whole amount of capital invested. The value of the Bear Valley coal-basin, and importance to the public of its early development, by the construction of the Bear Mountain Railroad, will be evident from the foregoing remarks. Notwithstanding that the quantity of anthracite coal, mined in the year 1845, exceeds the year previous by about 25 per cent, the demand has increased with still greater rapidity; and, with the various railroads and canals leading from the coal-region, transacting a business nearly equal to their capacity, a necessity exists for the development of some new field of operations. Among the many projects which this necessity has called forth, no other promises such lasting benefits to the public as the Bear Mountain Railroad. T. E. S.

## Art. V.—LOUISIANA: ITS AGRICULTURAL AND COMMERCIAL INTERESTS.

The Secretary of the Treasury, during the year 1845, propounded twenty-six questions to manufacturers, merchants, and others in different sections of the Union, on the subject of the tariff, and warehousing system. The New Orleans Chamber of Commerce has sent us a copy of the report of that body, in reply to those questions, and as it embodies much valuable information, touching the commercial resources, and productive industry of that state, we have concluded to lay it before our readers. As many of the questions of Mr. Walker, the Secretary of the Treasury, do not in any way apply to the state of things as they at present exist in Louisiana, the committee appointed by the Chamber of Commerce have, without attempting to reply in detail, and in regular order, given in the report a general account, embracing the principal points which are particularly applicable to Louisiana, and which exhibit, in a clear and condensed form, the agricultural and commercial interests of that state. It will be seen that the New Orleans Chamber of Commerce identify the cotton-growing interests of the south, with the cotton manufactures of the north.*

The agricultural productions of Louisiana, may be considered as confined to cotton, sugar, molasses, and rice; the latter, however, only to a limited extent, and far short of what is required for consumption. Corn and hay are raised on the plantations for their own consumption, and some of the former even for sale, but to so small an extent as not to be worthy of note. The quantity of both grown in the state, is far from being a full supply for local consumption, and large quantities of both from other states are annually sold and consumed here. The same in regard to potatoes, peas, beans, onions, etc. Other grain than corn is not cultivated in the state.

* The committee of the New Orleans Chamber of Commerce, who made this report, consisted of Messrs. William L. Hodge, Alexander Gordon, and J. W. Zacharie. At a full meeting of the board, which took place on the 1st of December, 1845, this report was read, and adopted, with but one dissenting voice, and a copy of it transmitted to the Secretary of the Treasury.

The cotton crop of Louisiana may be estimated at 350,000 bales, of 400 pounds each, varying, as the season may be more or less favorable.

The sugar crop of the last five years has been:

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 1840–41, | 120,000 | hogsheads. |
| 1841–42, | 125,000 | " |
| 1842–43, | 140,000 | " |
| 1843–44, | 100,000 | " |
| 1844–45, | 200,000 | " |

Of an average nett weight of 1,000 pounds each.

The molasses is estimated at 45 to 50 gallons per hogshead.

The state does not raise horses, mules, sheep, hogs, or provisions sufficient for her consumption. Some horses, though comparatively few, and some horned cattle, are furnished from the western districts of the state. Hogs, to a limited extent, are raised on some of the plantations; but on most of them none at all. Sheep are also raised, but in very small numbers; and the state is dependent on the western states for nearly all her bacon, pork, and butchers' meat; for all her breadstuffs and grain, and horse and cattle feed, except hay and corn, of which, as already stated, a partial supply is grown in the state.

Sixty thousand bales of pressed hay are annually imported from the Atlantic ports and western states.

All the mules, nearly all the horses, oxen, pork, bacon, salted beef, breadstuffs, and provisions, are procured from the western states.

Out of the city of New Orleans, there are no manufactories deserving of the name, unless it may be the state penitentiary at Baton Rouge. In the city, they are few, and on a limited scale. There is a small cotton mill, and one or two on a large scale are in contemplation, but depending on the coming action of Congress respecting the tariff. There are several iron foundries, and engine makers, and some copper and tin manufactures; five or six sugar refineries; one paper mill; three steam grist mills; and, in the immediate vicinity, extensive brick yards, and steam saw mills. It is believed these embrace nearly, or quite all the establishments of any note, and of course do not include those of minor importance, that are dispersed in private buildings throughout the city, such as lock and gunsmiths, blacksmiths, shoemakers, etc.; but even these are in comparatively very limited numbers, and furnishing but a small portion of the necessary supply, required by the community, of their respective articles.

The great staples of the state are, of course, sugar and cotton, and her resources and prosperity at present depend on the culture of these two articles.

Until within a few years, the culture of cotton gave very large profits, greatly exceeding that perhaps of any other industrial pursuit, either agricultural or mechanical; the natural and inevitable consequence of which was, particularly in such an enterprising country as the United States, that capital was attracted to, and accumulated so rapidly in that particular culture, that, notwithstanding the rapid increase of consumption, the production has overtaken, if it even has not exceeded it, and a consequent reaction has taken place; and that interest is now comparatively depressed, particularly in the older planting states on the Atlantic, where the production per acre is so much less than in the new and rich soil of the southwestern section of our country. Excessive production, is the great evil under which the culture of cotton is now laboring; and anything which will permanently divert a portion of the force now engaged in raising it to some other object, will, as a matter of course, greatly benefit the cotton planter; but, unfortunately, these latter are constantly striving, by increased cultivation, to compensate themselves for low prices, though, even at present rates, it yields an annual return equal to any of the great agricultural staples of the north or west.

In answer, more particularly, to the twenty-sixth question of the secretary, whether the present duties benefit the agricultural productions of the state, the committee of the Chamber of Commerce reply affirmatively, both as regards cotton and sugar. The present duties they consider as the principal cause of the pros-

perity and increase of the cotton manufactures of the United States, which benefit the cotton planter:—

I. Because the domestic manufacturer is another and important competitor with other purchasers of the raw material. He is early and constantly in the market, and always with a favorable effect, for the planter, as to price; and their heavy and constant purchases, it is universally admitted, keep the market above the rates that would otherwise prevail.

II. The domestic manufacturer consumes exclusively American cotton, whereas the British manufacturer uses only about three-fourths of American, and the balance India, Egyptian, and Brazil; and if the cotton goods now manufactured in the United States, and requiring probably 500,000 bales annually of our own cotton, were manufactured in, and imported from England, only 375,000 bales of American cotton would be consumed, and the remaining 125,000 bales would be foreign cotton.

III. The domestic manufacture has entirely driven from the markets the immense quantity of coarse Bengal cotton goods, which were previously imported from Calcutta and Madras, to an extent that required 40 to 50,000 bales of cotton to manufacture, and would, if we continued to import in the same ratio for our present population, require more than double that quantity. The first protective tariff of 1816, advocated and urged by southern statesmen, killed off that entire trade at a single blow, and now a much better and more serviceable fabric is furnished at less than one-third the price, and manufactured exclusively from our own cotton, instead of being exclusively of foreign cotton; with the additional fact, that large quantities of American cotton are now consumed in manufactured goods sent by us into those very ports of India, from whence we formerly drew such heavy supplies.

IV. A large quantity of American cotton is consumed for manufactured goods for the Chinese market, with the prospect of an enormous increase. The cheapness of India cotton, and the vicinity of it, prevent us from competing with the raw material in the markets of China, which we can only enter with the manufactured article—for the great perfection and superiority of our machinery, our greater skill, and the vast advantages of our motive power, enable us to overcome their cheap labor, employed upon rude and unscientific hand-looms; and their inveterate prejudices against all innovations or changes, will effectually prevent them from adopting our spindles, power-looms, and steam engines, to say nothing of the time and difficulty of introducing such radical changes in so remote a country, even if they were more willing to adopt them; and we are probably destined, in a very few years, to see the cotton goods now annually manufactured in that empire from hundreds of thousands of bales of India cotton, superseded by goods made in the United States, from our own raw material. This effect has already been produced to a considerable extent in British India, where their hand-looms are rapidly giving way before British and American manufactured cotton, though an import duty has been imposed upon them, which the British government has recently doubled on those imported in American vessels.

The domestic manufacture of cotton has, therefore, advanced the interest of the cotton grower, by increasing the consumption of American cotton, not only at home, but by opening new markets abroad, and substituting goods made entirely from our cotton, for those which previously were wholly or partially made from foreign cotton. These results are constantly extending and increasing, and can only be maintained by the continued success and prosperity of the domestic manufacture.

The advantages of the present duties are more directly apparent, as regards sugar, and these advantages are participated in, to a very great extent, by the citizens of every section of our country.

It has been the aim of many to hold up the sugar planters of Louisiana in an odious point of view, to the people of the United States. They have been represented as a set of bloated monopolists and plunderers, not only small in number, but their interest only of a local nature, and of no importance in a national point of view. Nothing can be further from the facts than assertions of this kind, for the culture of the cane is not only of high national importance, but the advantages

derived from it, so far from being of a local nature, are more generally diffused among the citizens of almost every state in the Union, than by any other prominent interest of the country.

There is probably no civilized community in the world, more dependent on others for the luxuries, comforts, and necessaries of life, than Louisiana is on her sister states. She produces and makes little or nothing for her own wants; and no portion of her population is thus dependent to a greater extent than her sugar planters.

Without, at present, noticing the great number of new sugar plantations, we will only take into view the old ones, as they existed last year, of which there were 762 in the state—of these, 408 were worked by steam, and 354 by horse-power.

The cost of an engine and sugar-mill, will average $5,000 to $6,000. At the former rate, there is already invested, for the 408 estates, upwards of $2,000,000. The mills on the 354 estates, at $2,500 each, will be $900,000 more, making nearly $3,000,000 paid by the planters for their present machinery; and this is a low estimate, as there are many plantations that have expended $20,000 to $40,000 for machinery. These engines, boilers, mills, etc., require renewing at least every ten years, so that there is an annual expenditure of $300,000 to keep up the present number, which, with $100,000 for new engines annually required to substitute in the horse-mills, and $80,000 to $100,000 for repairs, and replacing broken machinery, would form an annual expenditure of nearly $500,000, in addition to the first cost, paid to the iron foundries and engine makers of Tennessee, Ohio, Pennsylvania, and New York. Upwards of 70 new engines and sugar-mills are at this moment under contract in Cincinnati alone, for this state, and no doubt a still larger number at Pittsburgh, Philadelphia, and New York; and the expenditure by the sugar planters for new machinery, the ensuing season, will, at a low estimate, be at least $1,000,000.

There are 5,000 large iron sugar kettles, costing on an average $70 each, amounting to $350,000, requiring to be renewed every five years, being an annual expenditure of $70,000, paid principally to the iron foundries of Tennessee, though Pennsylvania, Ohio, and New York also participate.

All the shoes, hats, caps, blankets and clothing, for the 50,000 hands employed in the culture, are produced from the northern and western states, which, at the low estimate of $20 each, makes $1,000,000 paid under this head, with probably $300,000 to $400,000 more for similar supplies to the planters, their overseers, engineers, and mechanics, with all their respective families.

Nearly, or quite $300,000, is annually paid to northern and western mechanics for molasses casks, and hoops and nails for the sugar hogsheads.

All the agricultural utensils, such as ploughs, harrows, spades, shovels, axes, cane-knives, hoes, harness, carts, barrows, etc.; all the nails, iron, hardware, and tools of every description, are procured from the northern and western states.

At least $500,000 are annually paid to the west for mules, horses, and oxen; of mules alone, 4,000 to 5,000 are annually required, at an average cost of at least $90 each; a still larger sum is yearly paid to the same quarter for pork, bacon, and corn, exclusive of what is raised in the state. With the exception of bricks, and part of the lumber, all the materials for constructing the needful buildings, such as boiling, draining, and mill-houses. the dwellings of the planter, his overseer, mechanics, and negroes, are brought from other states, including slate, tiles, lime, oil, paint, glass, nails and hardware. The sugar planter consumes large quantities of rice, from South Carolina and Georgia, and tobacco from Virginia and Kentucky; and, in short, he and his negroes are clothed, lodged, and fed, and his crop is grown and made by supplies drawn from abroad; nor is there probably a single state in the Union, that does not lay him under contribution to a greater or less extent. For all these supplies, as well as many others that cannot be recollected or enumerated, the sugar planter has only his crop to depend upon, the proceeds of which he certainly distributes with a most liberal hand, among his fellow-citizens in the other states, and in a mode best calculated to promote their interests and general prosperity. Should a change in the policy of the country

curtail or destroy the sugar interest in Louisiana, and transfer it to foreign planters, it should be borne in mind that the latter draw few or none of their supplies from the United States, whereas the Louisiana planter spends the whole of his income at home, and gives regular and constant employment to thousands of our own industrious mechanics, artizans and agriculturalists in every section of the Union, all of whom would be severe sufferers by the change.

It has been urged against the protection afforded to sugar, that it is for the benefit of a small number, not exceeding 800 individuals. This, in the first place, is a mistake, as the 762 old plantations are owned by 1,293 distinct and separate families, or heads of families, comprising probably 8,000 to 10,000 individuals. But, supposing it were otherwise, would it in any way alter the importance of it in a national point of view? Would it add more to the national wealth, or give employment to a greater number, were there more proprietors to the existing estates?

It is presumed that none will deny the national importance of the shipping interest, and yet a selection could no doubt be made of 600 or 700 ship owners, (about one-half the number of sugar planters,) who probably own nine-tenths of all the tonnage of the country. Would this fact lessen the importance of that interest? Would its value as a nursery of seamen, or its general advantages to the country, be in any way diminished or changed in consequence? We think not.

Those who use the argument against it, of its comparative small magnitude, we presume, are not aware that the capital already employed in the culture of the cane in Louisiana, is fully equal to the entire capital invested in all the American tonnage employed in the foreign and coasting trade of the country, and will greatly exceed it so soon as the new plantations recently opened, and opening, are fully under way. Probably no other distinct and separate branch of national industry, agriculture only excepted, employs an equal capital.

These remarks, as already observed, only take into view the 762 old estates, as they existed last year, and from which the crop of 200,000,000 of pounds was produced. From the low price of cotton, and the general belief that the extended and extending culture of it was rapidly outstripping the consumption, and would thus create additional depression, many of our cotton planters have turned their attention to sugar, as affording better prospects for the employment of their capital and hands; in consequence, a large number of sugar plantations have been recently opened, that heretofore have been devoted to cotton; and many more deterred from doing it, from the uncertainty attending the tariff policy of the country.

Mr. P. A. Champomier, who prepared and published the detailed statement of the crop of last season, has been, and still is engaged in obtaining a detailed and correct statement of all the new plantations, with the name of each proprietor, and the location. Heretofore, sugar has been cultivated in only 20 parishes of the state, of which Mr. C. has gone through 17. Of the result, the following is a condensed summary, on which full reliance may be placed, the full details having been before the committee:

| Parishes. | Old Plant'ns. | New Plant's. | Total. | No. owners. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Pointe Coupee, | 5 | 32 | 37 | 42 |
| West Baton Rouge, | 19 | 31 | 50 | 69 |
| East Baton Rouge, | 18 | 17 | 35 | 52 |
| Iberville, | 69 | 41 | 110 | 169 |
| Ascension, | 48 | 15 | 63 | 98 |
| St. James, | 67 | 9 | 76 | 185 |
| St. John, | 55 | 6 | 61 | 143 |
| St. Charles, | 37 | 4 | 41 | 88 |
| Jefferson, | 24 | 4 | 28 | 48 |
| Orleans and St. Bernard, | 23 | 2 | 25 | 42 |
| Plaquemines, | 36 | 7 | 43 | 70 |
| Assumption, | 62 | 72 | 134 | 206 |
| Lafourche, | 49 | 39 | 88 | 159 |
| Terrebonne, | 42 | 26 | 68 | 87 |
| St. Mary, | 147 | 31 | 178 | 287 |
| St. Martin, | 36 | 31 | 67 | 106 |
| | 737 | 367 | 1,104 | 1,851 |

From this it appears, that in these 17 parishes, there have been opened in the last twelve or fifteen months, 367 new sugar plantations, making, with 737 old ones, 1,104 owned by 1,851 distinct and separate proprietors, either as families or heads of families. That in the other three sugar parishes of St. Landry, Vermillion, and Lafayette, there were 25 old plantations, and, from estimate, will be 25 to 30 new ones. That in the parishes of Rapides, Avoyelles, Calcasieu, Concordia, and Catahoula, where the cane had not previously been cultivated, arrangements had been commenced for changing more than 200 cotton into sugar estates—but the larger number have been suspended until the action of Congress is ascertained on the tariff—though, from the best estimate that can be made, from 60 to 70 have actually been opened, which will make an aggregate of 450 new plantations now progressing, and with the old ones, a total of about 1,200, owned by more than 2,000 principal proprietors or families, who are wholly or principally dependent on them, besides the engineers, overseers, mechanics and their families, making in all probably 25,000 to 30,000 white persons, and 80,000 to 90,000 slaves who are directly connected with, or dependent on, the culture, besides those indirectly interested in furnishing supplies, transporting and selling the crop, etc., etc.

Of the new plantations, but few this year will raise more cane than they will require for replanting, and therefore will add but little to the growing crop; but the larger number will produce sugar the ensuing season, and all of them the year after. Under anything like a favorable season, the sugar crop of the state for 1846–'7 may be estimated at 275,000 to 300,000 hogsheads, with a large increase on that quantity in 1847–'8.

The culture also is increasing in Florida, and will of course do so to a greater extent in Texas, under the annexation of that country, where there are large bodies of the finest sugar lands, and with a climate superior even to that of Louisiana for the cultivation. From all these sources of supply, if there is no change in the tariff policy of the country, there is no reason to doubt that the production will, in a very short period, overtake the entire consumption of the United States, and with a probable surplus for exportation; and so soon as this is the case, the duty will be nominal, as it now is on cotton.

It requires no argument to show the great advantage which this extended culture of the cane will be to the cotton planter. The force recently diverted from cotton has probably heretofore produced more than 100,000 bales, and the advantage derived from this diminished production is not confined to Louisiana, but is equally felt through the entire cotton region of the country; and it should be recollected that the whole force and capital now employed on sugar would be capable of producing 300,000 to 400,000 bales of cotton, to which culture it must return, if driven from that of sugar; and none for a moment can doubt the depressing and ruinous effect which such an event would inevitably produce on the price of cotton.

Before quitting the subject of sugar, the committee would refer to the fact, how greatly the nominal protection afforded to it is neutralized, and the public revenue injured, by the provisions of the present tariff as connected with the article of molasses.

The official returns show that 250,000,000 of pounds, or upwards of 22,000,000 of gallons, were imported in the United States, in the year 1843–'4. Of this, about 200,000,000 pounds, or 17,000,000 of gallons, were from Cuba, where the whole produce of real molasses, which consists of the drainings of Muscovado sugar, of which comparatively a small quantity is made on the island, does not exceed 500,000 gallons, and the balance must have been the syrup arising from the operation of making their white and brown clayed sugar, composing the great bulk of their crop, which syrup is not known in Cuba by the name of molasses, but which is shipped as such in these immense quantities to the United States, and introduced under the molasses duty of 45 cents per 100 pounds. This article on its first boiling will yield 50 per cent of good sugar, and the residue molasses, from which more sugar can be obtained by a second process. Since the tariff of 1842, large establishments have been created at the North for the purpose of thus

extracting sugar, and at an estimated yield of only 50 per cent, it will be seen that 125,000,000 of pounds, or 125,000 hogsheads of foreign sugars, are thus annually introduced at a duty of less than one-half cent per pound, to the great injury of the sugar interest, and at a loss of nearly three millions of dollars to the revenue.

That such is the fact, is corroborated by the nominal consumption of sugar in the country. The people of the United States obtain the article at a lower rate than any other nation, and their means and general circumstances enable them to consume it more freely than any other people; and yet, while the official statistics of Great Britain show that the annual consumption of each person in that kingdom is 23 pounds, the statistics of the United States show a consumption of only 18 pounds for each person. It is impossible that such should be the fact, and the result can only be accounted for from the immense quantities of foreign sugar that are surreptitiously introduced under the form of molasses.

On the subject of the warehouse system, the committee believe that the absence of it under a state of cash duties, has already been highly injurious to the commercial interests of the United States.

A large portion of the import trade in foreign manufactures has always been in the hands of European houses, and the payment of duties in cash has the tendency to throw a still larger portion of it into their control; for not only are they generally capitalists, who, without inconvenience, can advance the duty, but they also have the facility of doing it by their agents drawing on their principals in Europe, which bills can be covered previous to maturity from the proceeds of the sales of goods, whilst the American importer is obliged to raise the amount at a higher rate of interest, and frequently at a sacrifice; and even as between resident American houses, it acts to the disadvantage of the small, and in favor of the large capitalist.

A warehouse system would add greatly to the security of the revenue by preventing all possibility of debenture frauds, which can now be readily practiced by unprincipled men, whilst the foreign goods are allowed to remain in their possession, as they now are under the present system. So extensive were these frauds, as regards foreign liquors, that Congress many years since found it necessary to pass a law refusing, in all cases, to allow a drawback on such liquors, unless it had, whilst stored, remained constantly under the custom-house lock, and in charge of a revenue officer. In a warehouse system, the goods go directly from the vessel to the public store, and from the store directly to the exporting vessel, without ever being from the possession of the custom-house, and the importer is relieved from any advance for duties on the goods intended for exportation, and need only pay it on those for consumption after he may have actually sold them, saving thus not only the interest and the amount, but also any sacrifice in raising it.

One of the greatest advantages to a commercial country is the ability to maintain, at all times, extensively assorted and large stocks of foreign merchandise; but it is obvious that cash duties, without a warehouse system, operate most disadvantageously to doing so, particularly in this country, where money is so valuable. Not only does the loss of interest encroach upon, but it frequently absorbs all the profits, to say nothing of the forced sales at heavy loss, that is frequently incurred, in order to obtain relief from the burthen of these heavy advances for the duties in addition to the cost of the goods. These forced sales are also injurious to other holders of goods by the depression they occasion in the value of their stocks, and the fluctuation and uncertainty of prices.

The debenture system, as it now exists, is peculiar to this country—powerful and obvious reasons existed in favor of it under the former system of credit duties and the then peculiar circumstances of the country; but a radical change in those circumstances, and the establishment of cash duties, renders that system onerous in the extreme on the foreign commerce of the country, and make the adoption of the warehouse system a matter of almost absolute necessity.

It is a high and strong recommendation in favor of it, that it is adopted on the most liberal and extensive footing in all those nations most celebrated for their commercial wisdom and experience. The want of it has already driven from New

Orleans nearly the whole of the Mexican trade, as the merchants of that country can no longer procure here those large and varied assortments of foreign manufactures, which were always to be obtained in this city, and this lucrative branch of commerce has been transferred to Havana, where a liberal warehouse system exists.

Whilst New Orleans retained this trade, from four to five millions of specie were annually received here from Mexico, whilst the amount now received is not a tenth part of that sum. Other parts of the Union have also suffered from the same cause, and it also operates injuriously as regards the produce and manufactures of the country, as these foreign purchasers always bought largely of them when making up their stock. The question of the Honorable Secretary can safely be answered, that the warehouse system "would increase the trade and commerce of the state," and that the adoption of it, and the abolition of the present system of drawbacks, would be highly advantageous, not only to the commerce, but also to the produce and manufactures of the country.

The Honorable Mr. Phœnix made, on the 12th February, 1844, a most able and luminous report to the House of Representatives, on a memorial of this Chamber, in favor of the warehouse system, which report contains facts and arguments in favor of the measure that cover the whole ground, and are unanswerable, and which, it is to be hoped, will induce Congress, at the ensuing session, to adopt the measure, and relieve the commerce of the country from the unnecessary and onerous burthen under which it is at present laboring for want of it.

## Art. VI.—PROGRESS OF AMERICAN MANUFACTURES.

NEW MANUFACTURES IN THE EASTERN STATES—AMERICAN CUTLERY—IMPROVEMENT IN COTTON SPINNING—MANUFACTURE OF SILK IN THE EASTERN AND WESTERN STATES—MACHINERY FOR THE MANUFACTURE OF CARPETING, ETC.—MANUFACTURE OF PINS IN CONNECTICUT—BUTTONS AND PENS—DISCOVERY IN THE MANUFACTURE OF IRON—MANUFACTURE OF AXES—AMERICAN AND FOREIGN HEMP—WHITNEY'S RIFLE FACTORY—MANUFACTURES OF FALL RIVER—PROGRESS OF INVENTIONS, ETC.*

THE progress of manufactures in the United States during the last few years is truly astonishing. The journals of the day, from almost every section of the Union, furnish information in relation to the establishment of manufactories for almost every fabric of commerce and consumption. The South and the West, we are gratified to note as a sign of the times, are becoming interested, more or less, in this important branch of productive industry. We have within the boundaries of our wide spread territorial domain, in our agricultural products and mineral wealth, and in the enterprise, skill and industry of our people, all the elements of complete success—the means and the power of placing us, in this respect, on an eminence far above the most favored European nations.

The papers of South Carolina, one of the great cotton states, are congratulating those friendly to a change in the system of industry in that

* We shall endeavor to collect from every part of the Union, and lay before our readers, from time to time, accurate statements of the progress of manufactures; not omitting the improvements made in the construction of machinery, and the various methods that may be adopted for the perfection of the manufacturing interest; which harmonizing with the industrial enterprises of agriculture and commerce, cannot fail of promoting the peace and social welfare of the nation; and in this endeavor we would respectfully solicit the aid of correspondents from every state and territory, as we wish to unite in one common brotherhood the seemingly conflicting interests of every part of our great Republic.

state, on the passage of bills by the legislature chartering manufacturing associations. They say:—

"The path is now open to almost unfettered enterprise for those in South Carolina who are disposed to engage in manufactures. The sphere of industrial energy will be greatly enlarged. The development of those resources with which South Carolina is blessed, will take place on that scale which will unfold all our natural capabilities. Let us then come to the task imposed on us by circumstances, of changing our scheme of industry, with the energy blended with prudence and caution that will ensure success. The public of Charleston have unlimited confidence in the discretion and practical ability of those who have put themselves at the head of this important industrial movement. They will be sharers in the hazards, if any there are, of the enterprise. Their means are ample to meet those hazards. Let the public answer, by liberal subscriptions, to the spirit of patriotic adventure which has induced them, with the view of effecting a salutary change in our system of labor, to bestow their time in making the preparatory arrangements for the purpose. The consummation of these arrangements now rests with the public. We shall have something more to say on this subject."—*Charleston Evening News, Dec.* 13, 1845.

Virginia has already nearly twenty woollen manufactories. The products of her cotton manufactures amount to more than half a million of dollars per annum; and the spirit of her citizens is aroused to the importance of a system of internal improvement, which, with her almost unequalled resources, must eventually, and at no distant day, give her a rank in the industrial scale scarcely second to any of her sister states.

Indeed, in most of the Southern, Southwestern and Western states, a spirit of inquiry is awakened on this subject; and within a short time manufactures have been projected and plans of inter-communication discussed, that indicate results the most auspicious to the future prosperity, happiness and progress of the American people, scattered over our great national domain. Let us not then mar the glory of our free government by any injustice or false notions of honor; but march on in the career of national strength, armed with that righteousness which can alone truly exalt a great Republic, or impart stability to our institutions.

The progress of manufactures in the Eastern states is still onward. At Portsmouth, New Hampshire, a new steam factory is now being erected, which is said to be the largest in the world. It is 204 feet long. The eastern and western wing are 150 feet each, making 300 feet. The centre part is six stories high, the wings five stories; the height of the lower story 13 feet, and of the other stories 12 feet. The length of the front will be 504 feet, or about a tenth of a mile. There will be about five acres of flooring in this factory. It will run, when completed, 50,000 spindles, and employ about 1,500 operatives. In the rear, two parallel buildings, two stories high, are to be extended 100 feet back from the junction of the main building with the wings; and between those buildings, 50 feet from the main structure, the boiler house is to be erected. The foundation of the chimney, which is to be 140 feet high, is laid, and is in progress of erection.

A gentleman who has been travelling the last year, in pursuit of information respecting manufacturing establishments, and who has visited more than a thousand factories, states, that the largest factory building he has

seen or heard of is at Manchester, New Hampshire, which is 440 feet in length. There is no factory in England to compare with it for size.

At Salem, Massachusetts, a mammoth steam mill is going up, to run 40,000 spindles. High up the Merrimack, at Manchester, New Hampshire, two or three new mills, of the largest class, are being erected. At Nashua, a large mill is also building. At Lowell, the Merrimack Manufacturing Co. are putting up a mill 400 feet long, to run 20,000 spindles—and the Hamilton Co. one of 300 feet long, to run 15,000 spindles—and the Middlesex Woollen Co. are also about building a large mill. At Dover, the Cocheco Co. are erecting the largest Calico Printery in the country. The walls of two new mills in Newburyport are completed, and the machinery all contracted for—so that they will be in operation early in the summer of 1846. The Globe Mill will have 13,060 spindles and 325 looms—and the Ocean Mill 8,000 spindles and 216 looms.

A company of New York capitalists have recently purchased an extensive water privilege in East Brooklyn, Connecticut, on the Quinnebaug river, directly on the line of the Worcester and Norwich Railroad, for the purpose of erecting immediately a cotton factory of the largest dimensions. These movements are made, it would seem, without regard to the policy to be pursued by the administration in regard to the tariff; indeed, we believe that it is now generally admitted that in cottons at least we can compete with England, without any other protection than that afforded by a necessary revenue tariff.

In thus briefly alluding to the progress of American manufactures, it will not, we presume, be deemed out of place to refer to the improvements that have been made in the various branches, gathered from a variety of reliable sources of information, and also to embody a few facts on the subject generally.

### AMERICAN CUTLERY.

A few years ago, this country was entirely dependent upon foreign manufactures for cutlery; but at present there are several establishments in the United States, one or two in New York, one or more in Connecticut, some we believe in Massachusetts and Maine, which supply the most elegant and highly finished articles. The finest razors and best surgical instruments are made in New York. We have examined various specimens of table cutlery and penknives from the manufactory of Henry Ibbotson of Auburn, and have seen nothing superior, if equal to them, from Birmingham or Sheffield. Indeed, we understand that improvements in the style and finish of these articles have been recently made at Auburn, and that it will be difficult for the English manufacturer to compete with our own in the quality of the articles or in the moderate price at which they are sold. In this manufacture of cutlery, as well as in regard to other articles, American skill and enterprise have taken such a start as to be independent in most if not all cases of protection, as they will at no very remote day defy competition. It is more important that they should advance safely and surely than rapidly. It is truly gratifying to observe their present success and more brilliant promise.

### IMPROVEMENT IN COTTON SPINNING.

Francis McCully, an American by birth, and from his infancy a resident of the town of Paterson in New Jersey, where he has been engaged in the

construction of machinery, has recently made an important simplification in the process of spinning cotton. He has invented an improvement of the machine called a throstle, which, we are told by competent judges, is likely to work a great revolution in the cotton manufacturing business. The new process requires less than half the power required by the ordinary machine, takes less oil, dispenses with the use of bands, makes a smaller amount of waste, enables one person to attend a larger number of spindles, yet with all its economy in these several respects, produces more yarn, and of a better quality. A small model of the invention, containing about 132 spindles, is now and has been for several months in operation at the factory of Gen. Godwin, in Paterson, where its utility and success has been demonstrated to the satisfaction of all the practical men who have seen it at work. Mr. McCully, the inventor, has already secured patents for his machine in England, France, Belgium, Mexico, and this country, and is likely to realize a considerable fortune as well as extensive fame as a mechanician, by his ingenuity.

MANUFACTURE OF SILK IN THE EASTERN AND WESTERN STATES.

Great progress is making in the Western states in the culture and weaving of silk, which we hope to see soon becoming an extensive article of American manufacture. At Ohio and Pennsylvania they have produced woven silk of an excellent quality, and at Louisville, Ky., there is a manufactory in active operation. The Louisville Journal says: "Most of the operations in this factory are effected by steam. The cocoons are reeled on the machine, universally known as the Piedmontese reel, and the silk is spun on a throstle machine, a modification of which makes the twisted silk. Three looms are worked, and are principally employed in making sewing silk, handkerchiefs, vestings, and dress patterns for ladies."

The editor of the Bangor (Me.) Register has been presented with a couple of skeins of silk manufactured in the family of Mr. Enoch Huntington of Garland, which he can hardly believe was not imported from France or Italy, the thread is so even and perfect, and the general appearance of the hank is so good. Mr. Huntington had about one thousand cocoons last year, and is one of the few persons in that region who have given any attention to the raising of the silk worm, and manufacture of silk. Edmund Pillsbury, Esq., of Newport, has also engaged in the business to a limited extent, and others have turned their attention to it more as a matter of curiosity and amusement than as a source of profit, which it might become even in this unpropitious climate, if industry were turned in this direction.

INVENTION OF MACHINERY FOR THE MANUFACTURE OF CARPETING, MARSEILLES' QUILT, AND COACH LACE.

A Lowell correspondent of the New York Anglo-American gives the following facts in relation to the manufacture of carpets by power-looms, which has been commenced by the Lowell Company:—

"Mr. Bigelow, an ingenious young artisan, has invented a power-loom for weaving ingrain carpets; it is a splendid piece of machinery, and does great credit to the artist; it is capable of doing more than the ordinary hand-loom, and can with great ease be managed by a girl. I was much pleased while examining it, to see how mathematically exact it works. While the shuttle is passing from one box to another, if the thread breaks it at once stops, and when any change is necessary, a small bell attached to the machinery informs the girl in attendance what is wanted. It is truly astonishing to see the rapid march of science. To

the Lowell Company the people of this country are indebted for bringing this beautiful machine to its present high state of perfection; they have expended nearly $100,000 in building and erecting machines; they have now put up fifty looms, about one-third of which are in active operation; the carpets produced are of excellent quality, and will bear comparison with any manufactured. Mr. Bigelow has likewise completed a machine for the manufacture of Brussels carpets, which is confidently expected to excel all his other inventions in point of simplicity, and from the opinions I have heard from the best mechanics here, there is every prospect of its success. He is now manufacturing coach lace at the cost of 2¼ cents per yard, which formerly by hand-weaving cost 20 cents, showing a great difference in favor of the power machine of 17¾ cents per yard. To these great improvements he has added the manufacture of the Marseilles quilt, which is produced with as much facility as cotton cloth, the raised figures on the surface showing every variety of pattern. This description of work has seldom been attempted in this country, having formerly been made by the hand-loom, and required a very experienced workman—now a girl with a few weeks' practice, can manage one of the power-looms with the greatest ease. I am informed that a paragraph has gone the rounds of the papers stating that the inventor had got an offer from England of £80,000 for the patent. A gentleman connected with the Lowell Company assured me that it was not correct, but that Mr. Bigelow had taken out a patent in England."

IMPROVED MACHINE FOR THE MANUFACTURE OF PINS.

Brown and Elton of Waterbury, (Conn.,) have in operation an improved machine for the manufacture of pins, which turns out two barrels of pins per day. A barrel contains 4,000,000 pins, consequently 8,000,000 are manufactured in this little machine each day, or 48,000,000 a week, and 15,024,000,000 per annum, deducting 52 days for Sundays. The machine is perfect and simple in its operation. The wire is run into the machine from a reel, cut to the requisite length, pointed and headed, and made a finished pin by the one simple operation. From this machine they fall into the hopper of the sticking machine, as it is called, in which they are arranged and stuck upon the papers, and come out perfect, only requiring to be packed to be ready for a market. This latter machine, tended by a girl, will do the work of thirty persons by the old hand process. There are four other machines in the United States; a few more would supply not only enough for home consumption, but export to foreign countries, and at a large profit, after paying freight and duty, as it would be out of the question for the "little pin-headers" of England to compete with the ingenious Yankee contrivance.

MANUFACTURE OF BUTTONS AND PENS.

The Haydens, two brothers, commenced the business of making buttons, by hand, at Haydenville, near Northampton, Mass., employing only two or three hands besides themselves. After a few years they enlarged their establishment, and their business is said to have proceeded and increased as follows:—

| Year. | No. Hands. | Capital. |
|---|---|---|
| 1835 | 25 | $20,000 |
| 1836 | 50 | 30,000 |
| 1837 | 100 | 50,000 |
| 1838 | 200 | 100,000 |

In 1839 they added the business of manufacturing steel pens to that of making buttons, and their operations were as follows:—

| Years. | No. hands. | Capital. |
|---|---|---|
| 1839 | 225 | $125,000 |
| 1840 | 235 | 130,000 |
| 1841 | 235 | 130,000 |
| 1842 | 235 | 130,000 |
| 1843 | 250 | 145,000 |
| 1844 | 275 | 175,000 |

In 1844 the number of buttons manufactured per day was 1600 gross; and the number of pens manufactured per day was 100 gross.

DISCOVERY IN MANUFACTURING IRON.

The extensive demand for iron, both in Europe and in this country, not only for railroads and ships, but an innumerable variety of purposes, has stimulated the inventive genius of some American, and the result is as important as it is gratifying. Experiments have been made by Mr. W. C. Green of New Jersey, at the Boston Iron Works of Sherman and Atwater of the city of New York, whose extensive iron foundries are in New Jersey. Mr. Green's improvement is in the process of puddling the iron from the pig to the bar. Instead of using the pig iron, which costs about $35 per ton, he is enabled to use a large portion of the ore, which costs but $2 50 per ton, by which he effects, in labor and material, a saving of more than 33 per cent, and he gives a far better quality of iron than that which is obtained from the pig; as much better in appearance as china is better than earthenware. We have seen and compared, says the Express, the new specimen with iron made in the old way, and have marked the contrast as very great. Mr. Green's secret consists chiefly in mixing a composition with his ore and white in a modern state, by which the carbon is more rapidly exhausted than it is under the old process, and the iron is thus, in half the time, left tougher and finer.

IMPROVED MANUFACTURE OF AXES.

There is an axe factory at Collinsville, near Hartford, Conn., in which forty-five men turn out eight hundred axes every day. The axes sell for 13 dollars per dozen upon an average. The demand for them is almost illimitable. They labor in seven shops. The sixth shop is sacred—"no admittance" is written upon the door-post. The reason for this is that a new process for tempering the axes has been discovered—a process by which a hundred can be tempered at once, and that, too, after they have been ground. We regard this as an important discovery.

AMERICAN AND FOREIGN HEMP COMPARED.

The government agent for the purchase of hemp, at Louisville, Kentucky, Lewis Sanders, Esq., recently made several experiments to test the relative strength of Russian and American hemp, and as will be seen by the following letter of Mr. Sanders, the result has been in favor of the American.

HEMP AGENCY FOR KENTUCKY.

Commodore Morris, head of the Bureau of Construction and Equipment, caused to be sent to this agency a very perfect apparatus for the purpose of testing the quality of hemp; also, a box containing Riga Rhine hemp, and a box containing American water-rotted hemp, as samples for examination and comparison. The apparatus and samples of hemp were sent from the Boston Navy Yard, and arrived here in October last. The object of the department is to give information to the growers and dealers of hemp. By these samples and tests, bidders for the supply of the Navy can with more certainty submit their proposals.

I caused four parcels of hemp to be accurately weighed, of twenty-five pounds each, and delivered to Mr. Till, a rope-maker of this place, (who learned his trade in Boston,) with directions to make up each parcel separately, into 1¾ inch rope, and into yarns.

No. 1. Twenty-five pounds American water-rotted hemp, sent from the Navy Yard, Boston.

No. 2. Twenty-five pounds Riga Rhine hemp, sent from the Navy Yard, Boston.

No. 3. Twenty-five pounds cured and prepared by Mr. James Anderson of this place, intended for naval purposes.

No. 4. Twenty-five pounds of a good lot of Kentucky dew-rotted hemp.

The waste and tow returned by Mr. Till from No. 1, was 11 lb.; from No. 2, 6½ lb.; from No. 3, 6 lb.; from No. 4, 10 lb.

A piece of bolt rope, intended for 1¾ inch, made of yarns running 26, was put to the test.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| No. 1 broke or parted at | - - - - - - - - | 2,705 lb. |
| No. 2 | do. | do. - - - - - - - - | 2,555 lb. |
| No. 3 | do. | do. - - - - - - - - | 2,940 lb. |
| No. 4, of 1 16 10 in. | - - - - - - - - | 2,415 lb. |

Three-thread spun yarn of No. 1, broke at 400 lb.; of No. 2, at 365 lb.; of No. 3, hard twisted, at 352 lb.; of No. 4, at 450 lb.

Marline, two-thread, No. 1 broke at 132 lb.; No. 2 broke at 135 lb.; No. 3, hard twisted, at 112 lb.; No. 4, at 155 lb.

One-thread yarns, running 26—No. 1 broke at 222 lb.; No. 2, at 108 lb.; No. 3, at 140 lb.; No. 4, at 190 lb.

### WHITNEY'S RIFLE FACTORY.

The Rifle Factory of Mr. Eli Whitney, situated at the foot of East Rock, on the Hartford and New Haven Turnpike, was founded by the father of the present proprietor, in the year 1778, and was long used by him in the manufacture of arms for the United States Government. This gentleman, distinguished for his talents as a mechanic, for his sound judgment, and for his persevering industry, applied to this branch of business the same skill and ingenuity, the first-fruits of which had been already displayed in the invention of that instrument so important to the agricultural interests of the South—the Cotton Gin. The result was the production of an article superior to that obtained from England, not only in itself, but also in the manner in which it was made. The method of manufacturing muskets then devised by Mr. Whitney, and also many of the different kinds of tools invented and used by him, have been since adopted in the national armories. The establishment has, we believe, been exclusively devoted to this business, from the time of its foundation until about three years since, when an alteration was effected, and the manufacture of rifles substituted. The metal is wrought into the most eccentric shapes, without any further intervention of human hands than is requisite for superintending the machine. Owing to this skilful arrangement of machinery only thirty-five men are required to carry on the works, turning out nearly three thousand rifles a year, worth about thirteen dollars a piece. In the manufacture of these about 50,000 pounds of iron, 6,000 pounds of copper, and from 4 to 5,000 pounds of steel, are annually consumed. The steel is worked up into ramrods, springs, and portions of the lock. The iron costs about one hundred and forty dollars per ton, and is obtained from Salisbury, Connecticut—that procured there being found of a superior quality to either the English or Pennsylvania iron. The stocks are made of black walnut, which is brought from Pennsylvania. The rifles, when finished, weigh ten and a half pounds each. A strik-

ing advantage gained by the extended use of machinery in making the different parts of the rifle is the perfect uniformity of the work. So accurately and in so many different ways is every part, even the most minute, guaged, that in putting together the whole, no delay is occasioned from trifling inaccuracies in fitting. Each screw, spring, sight, top-board, or any other piece whatever, is so nicely wrought that it may be applied to and will fit any one of the three thousand rifles made in the course of the year as exactly as it does the one of which it finally forms a part. The rifles are made on contract for the Government, and are not offered for sale.

## Art. VII.—THE GERMAN ZOLLVEREIN AND THE HANSE TOWNS.

COMMERCIAL POLICY OF THE ZOLLVEREIN TOWARDS THE UNITED STATES AND THE HANSE TOWNS.

SEVERAL of the public papers have lately presented discordant views of the commercial policy of the German Zollverein towards the Hanse Towns, and those northern coast states of Germany which have not united with the Zollverein, and of the influence which it is said that Prussia exercises over that policy, which is represented as being prejudicial to the commercial interests of the United States.

These opinions having arisen more or less from the conflict of local interests affected by the Zollverein and its commercial policy, and from false apprehensions with regard to an adverse settlement of the respective interests between the said States and the Zollverein, the following observations, founded on a statement of facts, will no doubt rectify and harmonize the different opinions entertained on the subject, and allow an impartial opinion to be formed.

We have no interest in knowing what are the feelings and opinions of the different parties in Europe concerning the Zollverein. What we should ascertain, is, whether the mercantile policy of the Zollverein States (which contain about twenty-eight millions of customers) is susceptible of increasing our direct commerce with that country, on principles of real and true reciprocity. Such a commerce, few of the other European nations are disposed or enabled to admit; being prevented from doing so, partly by their restrictive commercial policy, and partly by their peculiar relations and obligations to their colonies.

One of the principal objections which have been made to the Zollverein, is, that Prussia is said to exercise an overwhelming influence over the other members of the Union, controlling their constitutional liberties. The question whether such an influence does really exist in the Union, may fairly be answered by the fact that those states whose liberties are said to be affected, voluntarily joined the confederacy. The question whether the organization of the Zollverein system, established by Prussia, offers any ground for such an accusation, should be submitted to a closer examination. The following facts will speak for themselves:—

According to the treaties on which the Customs Union is founded, no new tariff law, nor the alteration of any existing one, can be made *without the agreement of all the members of the said Union.* No such act can be passed by any majority of votes. The several states who form the Union, without regard to their population, or the extent of their territory, have all equal votes; and the single vote of the smallest of them, if in

opposition to any measure, will prevent its adoption, even if the votes of all the other members should be in favor of it. Thence Prussia, with a population of over 15,000,000, and Brunswick, with 155,000, have equal votes.

It has been said, in certain quarters, that this complete equality of representation of all the states of the Union had been used by Prussia as a means of inducing the said states to submit to her original customs system, and to maintain her influence over them; but an impartial examination of such an imputation will show that all the German States who have united with Prussia, in the formation of a common system of customs and commerce, have adopted the Prussian system, with slight modifications, always by the way of free treaties, which were submitted beforehand to the examination and ratification of the representatives of the respective countries. If ratification has not been refused by them in any single instance, the reason of it is its conveniency, and not the influence of Prussia. It is the conviction that the Prussian system, whose advantages had been experienced for many years, was the best adapted for the basis of a German Union of Customs and Commerce.

The leading principles of this system, which secured its adoption by the other German States, are as follows:—

I. The maintaining a proper medium between the principle of protection and of free trade.

II. Allowing a competition of foreign with the home industry, in the home markets; consequently, the exclusion of prohibitory duties.

III. A complete and true reciprocity with foreign countries.

IV. Facilitating the interior trade, by removing the customs between the states.

V. Protective duties, for the support of home industry, not so great as to prevent commercial intercourse with foreign nations, or their competition.

VI. Establishing and regulating custom duties, with a regard of the interests of every part of the confederacy.

VII. Free importation of the raw materials for the home manufacture; and,

VIII. Convenient duties on those foreign articles, viz: sugar, tobacco, rice, &c., the principal export of other countries, to promote and facilitate the conclusion of reciprocity treaties.

To such a system of customs and commerce, the other German States could join without any hesitation, because Prussia had made the experiment, and the result had been such as to induce imitation. This experiment was the more important for Germany, as Prussia unites under her dominion several provinces very different in climate, production, and other circumstances; and whose interests, although different, found a sufficient protection in the said system, which, having been a blessing to the Prussian provinces, could not be otherwise to other German States which are in the same position.

However, this adoption, by some of the German States, of the Prussian customs system, has not prevented its development and improvement afterwards, by common deliberation and resolution, whenever there was occasion for it. On the contrary, since the Zollverein has extended to its present state, the most important laws, viz: the new custom law, the custom organization, &c., &c., have passed, after a previous examination, at

the meetings of the plenipotentiaries of the several states; and, by the same proceeding, provisions have been made to carry into execution the said custom laws.

The present constitution of the Zollverein has only preserved the old Prussian custom system in its leading ideas and principles before mentioned, which could not have been abandoned without destroying the commercial confederacy.

Another charge made against the Zollverein, is, "that it presses upon the Hanse Towns, and the other German States at the North sea coast which have not yet joined the Union, in order to force them into it." This charge has attracted the attention of those nations who are in commercial relations with those states, principally America, because she finds in the Hanse Towns, for instance, a most favorable market for her products. These towns, as well as the other small coast states, whose principal interests are commercial, impose upon products not European very moderate, or mere nominal duties, in comparison with those imposed by the Zollverein; and, from this circumstance, apprehensions were entertained that the extension of the Zollverein to the North sea would be disadvantageous to the commercial intercourse of countries not European with the Hanse Towns, &c., &c.

Such an apprehension is without foundation; because the German States at the North sea, which do not belong to the Zollverein, have scarcely one-ninth of the population of the Zollverein, and therefore are of little importance, in comparison to the latter, as principal consumer of those products. The people of the Hanse Towns, who, in the export lists published in the respective countries of exportation, appear as the principal customers, are only the speditioners for the greatest part of transatlantic products, and the real consumers are in the interior of Germany. If, therefore, the small German States on the sea coast should join the Zollverein, and the tariff of the latter should prevail, (which, however, is not to be expected,) the apprehended diminution in the consumption of foreign products, in consequence of somewhat higher duties, could possibly take place only among the small population of the said states; but, by their annexation to the Zollverein, more advantages would be secured to the said export countries, in consequence of the great development of direct commerce between them and Germany.

In order to explain this by an example, we shall draw a comparison between the commercial position of the Hanse Towns, (Hamburg, Bremen, &c.,) and the American seaport cities. The Hanse Towns are free ports, and desire to remain excluded from the commercial policy of the rest of Germany;—the American seaport cities, New York, Boston, Philadelphia, &c., are included in the general commercial policy of the United States, and have not been permitted to establish themselves as free ports. Now, we would ask, are less European goods imported in New York, and consumed in the interior of the states, because New York is no free port? Since the United States form one great commercial confederacy, they have unity of interests, have consequently power, and are able to establish a direct commerce with the whole world, whereby the American seaports gain as much as if they were free ports, and all the interior of the United States partakes of the advantages of that trade. All parts of the United States gain more, by such a harmonious union, than they

would do, if the seaport cities were allowed to carry out, with foreign nations, a policy different from that of the United States. New York imports and exports, on the whole, as much as if it was separated from the tariff system of the Union. Its natural position secures as well its commercial importance, as that of Hamburg or Bremen does. The latter would lose as little, if they were included in the German Commercial Union, as New York, by belonging to the American Commercial Union.

There is no reason or foundation for an apprehension "that the Zollverein should employ coercive means to enforce the annexation of the said coast states to the Customs Union." By what means could such a coercion take place? The only means would have been, to impose higher duties on all products entering into the Zollverein by the seaports not belonging to the Union, than on those imported by the ports of the Zollverein. But such a discrimination has never been made, although it will become more and more practicable by the extension and conclusion of the railroad net over all Germany, without any considerable injury to the consumers in the interior.

The policy of the Zollverein, in its relations to those German States who have not joined the Union, always has adhered to the principle "that the annexation should take place voluntarily, and under the reciprocal conviction of its conveniency;" because history shows us that reluctant confederates are worse than enemies, and because the disregard of that principle would only weaken the Union, and endanger its futurity.

As a proof of the liberal policy of Prussia towards the Hanse Towns, and the other German Coast States not belonging to the Zollverein, it may be stated that, at the meeting of the representatives of the Zollverein States at Carlsruhe, at the end of the last year, a memorial was presented by Prussia, of which the German newspapers have given extracts, recommending the adoption of a joint navigation act, on the part of the Zollverein States, with the above-mentioned coast states in favor of the national flag, granting equal rights to such nations, only, who are willing to act upon the principle of full reciprocity. It is further proposed, in the said memorial, to pass a law by which general differential duties are to be established in favor of all direct importations from such producing countries which are willing to grant the same advantage to importations from Germany, by vessels under the same national flag, and by vessels of the contracting state, or such other country which may be entitled to such a privilege by special treaty. The limited time of the said conference not having allowed action upon this proposition, it has been postponed to the next conference, which is expected to take place at Berlin, at an early period in the present year, where probably this national question of "opening the field to the direct commercial intercourse between Germany and the transatlantic states," will be carried into effect on principles of true reciprocity.

## Art. VIII.—THE PROGRESS OF THE WEST:

CONSIDERED WITH REFERENCE TO GREAT COMMERCIAL CITIES IN THE UNITED STATES.

The Albany Argus says, in the conclusion of an interesting article on the dependence of eastern towns on the west, for their growth—

"New York, if she wills, can still hold her present command over the western trade; but this will require immediate efforts, such as will test the energies of her merchants. He is blind who does not see that; at the present time, she is menaced by a spirit of competition on the part of wealthy, enterprising, and powerful cities, such as never before occurred in her past history. But, with an effort, she holds the game in her own hands. The western trade is a prize worthy of those who would struggle for the colossal commercial power of America. A city sustained by that trade, can never languish; for the increase of production of the western states is almost boundless. Its city must be far greater than even Alexandria or Thebes. So long as New York remains at the head of the western trade, where our state pride and her own commanding position justly place her, she must irresistibly advance in wealth, influence, and population, until she will be known not only as the great city of America, but as the great city of the world."

Most of the positions of the Argus are sound. New York undoubtedly has it in her power to hold more of the western trade than any other *eastern* city; but it should be remembered that the centre of trade in this country is likely to follow the centre of population, which has already, in its westward course, reached the top of the Alleghanies. We lay it down as susceptible of demonstration, that the great city of America will be in the midst of, and not far from, the centre of the great *population* of America. Every man of tolerable intelligence knows that the centre is shortly to be in the great western valley. Including Canada, the North American Valley already has eleven of the twenty-one millions under the Anglo-Saxon dominion. This valley will have—

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| In 10 years,..... | 16,500,000 | In 60 years,..... | 88,600,960 |
| 20 " ..... | 23,100,000 | 70 " ..... | 124,040,134 |
| 30 " ..... | 32,340,000 | 80 " ..... | 173,656,000 |
| 40 " ..... | 45,276,000 | 90 " ..... | 231,540,333 |
| 50 " ..... | 63,286,400 | 100 " ..... | 309,721,777 |

To come to this result, we have allowed the increase for the first ten years to be 50 per cent, being nearly 24 per cent less than the increase of the western states from 1830 to 1840. After that, and down to eighty years, we have allowed 40 per cent, being 4 per cent more than the increase of the white population of all the free states, old and new, from 1830 to 1840. From eighty years down, the rate allowed for each ten years is 33⅓ per cent, being the present rate of increase of the whole country. The Atlantic border will increase nearly as follows:—

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| From 10 millions in 10 years, at 15 per cent,..... | 11,500,000 |
| " " 20 " " ..... | 13,225,000 |
| " " 30 " " ..... | 15,208,750 |
| " " 40 " " ..... | 17,490,062 |
| " " 50 years, at 10 per cent,..... | 19,239,068 |
| " " 60 " " ..... | 21,162,964 |
| " " 70 " " ..... | 23,279,250 |
| " " 80 " " ..... | 25,607,175 |
| " " 90 " " ..... | 28,167,892 |
| " " 100 " " ..... | 30,984,681 |

Fifteen per cent increase, each decade, is allowed for the first forty years, and 10 per cent afterwards. The increase of the Atlantic states, from 1830 to 1840, was 16.3 per cent; but this included the western portion of New York, Pennsylvania, and Virginia, which are in our valley.

It is fair to presume that the Argus expected at least one hundred years to pass away before New York should become the greatest city in the world. London has now about five times as many people as New York, and New York something less than five times the number of Cincinnati. To suppose the latter will surpass New York, is not a more extravagant anticipation than that New York will go ahead of London.

The internal exchanges of this country constitute the greatest part of the commerce even of New York, at which so large a part of our foreign commerce is carried on. The values transported on the Erie canal, alone, nearly come up to the values of all the exports of the United States. Our foreign commerce is increasing slowly; our home trade is expanding and augmenting rapidly. The latter, in all its branches, probably, now, is not less than fifteen times as great as the former. The home trade of the western valley, at the end of one hundred years, will be a trade of three hundred millions of people with each other, of the productions of their various climates, and more various industry; and also with the thirty millions on the Atlantic border. Will these three hundred millions go to New York to make their exchanges with each other? Is it even certain that half the product of the eastern slope, intended for western use, will not be brought to leading western marts for sale? or that western products intended for eastern consumption, will not be distributed from the western marts? Certainly, the three hundred millions will be backward children if they cannot make their exchanges with each other, without going eastward to the old homestead, a thousand miles out of the way.

Old ideas, whether hereditary, or the fruit of early education, are hard to eradicate or supplant. The salt sea, and commerce, and great cities, are naturally associated together in the minds of Western Europeans, and their descendants in America. As naturally is the interior of a broad continent associated, in their minds, with gloomy forests, desert prairies, and slow movements in all the channels of business. The idea of easy and rapid, and cheap movements of commercial equivalents, over the face of the continent, by means of river and lake steamers, and locomotives on railroads, with interlocking M'Adam highways and canals, is slow to enter the mind of the present generation. That land commerce has become so facile, as to compare with ocean commerce, may be acknowledged in the abstract, but its results have but just commenced a lodgment in the public mind.

If our estimate of the increase of the western valley should seem too large, let the reader reduce the aggregate, for one hundred years hence, to two hundred millions; and then, lest the Atlantic border should seem stinted in her allowance, set that section down for forty millions;—still, our deduction, in favor of western cities, stands on a firm foundation.

We might make out a strong case for western cities, independent of the above considerations, by exhibiting the means providing for a direct foreign commerce, away from the eastern cities. Little more than one year from this time will elapse, before the completion of the locks and canals around the falls of the St. Lawrence; by means of which, the ocean commerce will be accessible from the ports of the great lakes, in vessels of 350 tons

burthen. With iron vessels, of the propeller kind, voyages to all the ports of the world may be made from the interior of our country; from Toledo, Chicago, and Fond du Lac. In the south, by means of the Mississippi, a direct intercourse may be opened from Natchez, Memphis, and Evansville; and, in high water, from St. Louis, Louisville, and Cincinnati, with the West Indies, and the extensive coasts of the Gulf and Carribean sea, carried on in iron vessels, moved by steam and sail. Are these events as improbable as, fifty years ago, would have been deemed the changes that have taken place within that period? Are improvements to make slower progress, the next fifty years, than they have during the last fifty?

## Art. IX.—THE SILVER MINES OF MEXICO.

### AN ABRIDGMENT OF THE LAWS REGULATING THE MINES OF MEXICO.

The laws which ruled the mines in Spain, were those which were established at Mexico, but the collection of all the documents bearing upon them had not been made; and their number, as well as their antiquity, rendering their interpretation very embarrassing, M. Gamboa issued, in the year 1761, his Commentaries, which contain, besides numerous explanations of the laws relating to the working of the mines, numerous facts, some very curious, as to the different methods of mining in Mexico. In 1743, a miner, named Reborate, thought of establishing a company, to furnish means to adventurers on terms less onerous than those generally fixed upon by merchants of the capital, who, stipulating for no interests on their advances, had a great advantage in insisting on being reimbursed in silver, valued at between six and seven piastres the marc (the price of the money being nine piastres,) according as the duration of their outlay increased. This project was submitted to the king, and appears to have furnished subsequently the idea of a special tribunal for mines—destined, at the same time, to aid the miners with funds, arising from a tax of one real per marc on all the silver produced in Mexico, which was paid into this establishment. At the same period it was thought necessary to review all preceding decrees, and at the date of the 22d of May, 1783, the King decreed certain regulations for the government of the mines of New Spain, as it was then called. In every mining district, a special tribunal was established for that purpose, similar to some of our minor courts, deciding, without appeal, to the extent of 400 piastres, and with appeal, beyond that sum, before a superior tribunal, established at Mexico and Guadalaxara, under the name of the Court of Alzadas. These local courts, the members of which were nominated by the inhabitants, were subordinate to the Tribunal General de Mineria at Mexico, and the members of which were chosen by the principal districts; the number of votes given to each shows their relative importance at this period. Guanaxuato had six, Zacatecas four, San Luis three, Pachuca and Real del Monte two; every mining district having the title of a city (*cindad*) had three, and those of a town (*villa*) two only. This sort of jurisdiction had very extensive limits, not only for the settlement of lawsuits, but also for the proper administration, and the manner of exploring the mines; it also embraced the subject of roads, the conveyance of water, and the preservation of the forests; under the same authority was also placed the Mining School (*Real Seminario de Mineria.*) After

the independence, the commercial courts and the mining tribunals were suppressed, but the former are now being restored, and the latter are about to be re-constructed. These *ordenanzas*, or mining laws, have continued to be in operation, though limited to the province of the ordinary tribunals. They have been revised and dissected with great discernment, and seem now to be little needing ameliorations; however, we must observe, that there is no abrogation of that article which limits the possession of the mines to natives—that is to say, which excludes those who are not naturalized from having the entire possession, who may, however, have a partial interest in any of the mines. Every new mine belongs to him who denounces it, provided that, during the sixty following days, he has constructed a shaft in the vein of the mine at least of ten varas in depth. The concessions consist of a square of 200 varas. The abandoned mines, or those looked upon as such, by the works being suspended during a period of four consecutive months, can also be denounced. The metallurgical workshops (*haciendas de beneficio*) may also be considered as abandoned, and become the property of him who denounces them, whenever no works are carried on; the buildings are taken to pieces, and all the machinery withdrawn, but the proprietor has an extent of four months to preserve his property, if he prefers once more to renew operations. With a view to avoid disputes, a great many very proper regulations are established, amongst which are to be observed, those affecting the cost of exhausting the neighboring mines, and for the sharing of the mineral extracted on the concession of a stranger, by means of subterranean works which did not then exist at such a depth by the means of the proprietor. Useful precautions are also imposed as to the mode of exploring, and the safety of the workmen, but it is to be regretted, that too generally this interesting portion of the *ordenanzas* is not regarded, as respects the good management, and the hours of labor, with all that exactitude which the general interest demands, though the infringement is attended with the loss of possession. These same *ordenanzas* granted to the miners certain peculiar rights, some of which, as that of nobility, have ceased to exist, whilst others, relating to the rights of creditors, still exist the same as before. A miner, or proprietor of metallurgical workshops, cannot be dispossessed by his creditors, whose only course is to seize on the works, and conduct them on their own account, taking of the produce to the extent only of their demands; at the same time, furnishing to the debtor a sufficient sum over his indispensable expenses, and those of his family.

Under the Spanish government, which placed the military and the clergy under a peculiar jurisdiction, (*fueros*) these prerogatives are little surprising, and it is doubtful whether the class they were destined to protect, have derived any very great advantages; they have had, under all circumstances, this inconvenience, of obliging the miner to procure for himself the capital he found necessary, on conditions the harder in proportion as the reimbursement became the more fettered from his position. In Spain, the mines belonged to the crown, and could not be worked without special permission, which stipulated the part of the produce which should belong to the treasury; in 1504, shortly after the discovery of America, an *ordonnance* fixed this tax at a fifth of the value, which from that received the name of *quinto*; the booty collected by Cortez and his army was subjected to this regulation. After 1525, the working of mines of gold and silver, was permitted to all those who wished to undertake them, with the under-

standing that they should pay the ordinary tax on the produce. In 1548, this tax on the silver was reduced to a tenth of the value, for an extent of six years, but they still continued to receive it on this footing, by successive adjournments of the question, till the year 1572, when the tenth, instead of the fifth, was agreed upon without any other restriction; but this reduction of impost, which only applied to certain districts, did not become general till 1723. A law of Charles the Fifth fixed the rights of fusion, assay, and mark, at 1½ per cent on the value of the metals. In 1584, Philip the Second decreed, that in future the mines of America should not be merely concessions subject to provisions, but that they should be the property of those who discovered them, provided they complied in other respects to the mining regulations. Some other supplementary imposts, established at different periods, and amounting together to 2¾ per cent, were abolished in 1777, and there only remained but the tenth of the value, and the right to 1½ per cent on the fusion, the assay, and the mark. These rights, which existed on this footing until the emancipation of Mexico, were abolished, or rather modified, by a decree of the 20th February, 1822, which fixed equally what should be demanded on gold and silver, as to the different operations of assay, fusion, refining, &c. By this decree, all the duties are reduced to 3 per cent on the value of the metals. Since then they have added a right to 1 real each mark of silver of 11 deniers, valued at 8 piastres to 2 reals, or 66 reals (which is about 1½ per cent,) for the establishment *de mineria*—so that the total of the actual demands on the ingots is 4½ per cent for silver, and 3 per cent for gold. The expenses of fusion and assay are no longer a fixed duty, but are regulated on a footing which exceeds very little their real cost, which is of small importance. In Mexico, the assayers are required not only to settle the title of the ingots and the money, and to stamp the silver and jewels, but are also to see executed by themselves, the fusion of silver and gold, in that condition in which they are found at the close of the metallurgical labor necessary to separate them from the gangues. This precaution has been taken with the double view of avoiding any falsification of the ingots, and to insure the recovering of the duties. The general law requires the silver, in *marquetas*, to be brought to the laboratory of the assayer of the mining district in which the works are situated, such as it is after the volatilisation of the mercury, or the pieces of silver obtained by the treatment on the dry method. Some of the great works, such as those of Fresnillo and Real del Monte, for instance, have obtained the privilege of presenting their produce already converted into ingots at their establishments. It must be added, that there is great liberality as to the execution of this law, and that often the assayers mark, without referring them, blocks of silver of great weight, when they come from such establishments as are thought to be unimpeachable. This tolerance may, however, appear to be injurious some day when it is least expected; but in the present day, any frauds in ingots are unknown in Mexico, and the small number of differences which present themselves occasionally are due, either to some want of exactness in the assay, or rather, to some effects of liquation, difficult to be avoided, and which are very sensible on the ingots, which the law admits to a weight of 136 marks. The disputes between two assayers on the title of the same alloy, are decided by the *assayador mayor*, whose laboratory is established at Mexico. This is also the officer who issues, after examination, the diplomas to the assayers.

## Art. I.—MERCANTILE BIOGRAPHY.

### THE LATE ABIJAH FISK, OF NEW ORLEANS.*

ABIJAH FISK was born at Waltham, Massachusetts, in December of the year 1785. His father, also named Abijah, was a respectable farmer, a man of great moral worth and patriotism, who served his country for more than five years, during the revolutionary war of 1775, as a soldier in the army and navy of the United States—in the latter, on board the *Oliver Cromwell*, a vessel of war from the state of Connecticut, on board of which vessel he was taken prisoner, after a desperate action, in which she was captured by a British ship of war, and carried into New York while that place was in possession of the British forces. Notwithstanding he was severely wounded, which disabled him in a great degree for life, he was carried on board the prison-ship, and there confined many months, suffering almost every hardship which can be conceived possible for any one thus circumstanced to endure. Yet he recovered, and once more, after the close of the war, returned to his farm at Waltham, where he was married to Miss Alice Adams, one of the descendants from the ancestors of the late John Adams, formerly President of the United States, where he continued for many years to till the ground with his own hands. When his son Abijah, the subject of this sketch, was seven years of age, he removed to Weston, the next town adjoining, in the same state, where this son continued to labor with his father in the field, except at short intervals, during which he attended the public school about ten or twelve weeks per annum, mostly in the winter, and which was the *only* opportunity he ever had of attending any school whatever until he was nearly eighteen years of age, when he left his father's roof, poor and friendless, with nothing to recommend him but the proud consciousness of integrity, energy, and persevering industry, for a residence in Boston, in a store or commercial house doing business mostly with the country, as a salesman and general attendant in the store and out of it, as occasion required his services. He soon attracted the attention of some of the neighboring establishments, from his activity and good management in the establishment in which he was employed; and in two years, when he was but twenty years of age, he was offered a capital of five or six thousand dollars and the credit and use of the name of a house of large means, to go into business in his own name, dividing the profits with them. He accepted the proposition, and in one year he found he had doubled the capital, and his credit was good for any sum he required. In this way he went on for several years, when he found he had made a pretty handsome sum. He separated from those who established him, paying them off in full most honorably the half of the profits.

He continued to prosper in business at Boston, with occasionally heavy losses, laboring very hard in his store with his own hands, until about the year 1820, when he had accumulated a capital of $200,000, and upwards. About this time, or earlier, he had commenced some heavy operations at Savannah, in Georgia, by establishing a young man who had been a clerk of his for some time, (and he was remarkable for aiding others,) who soon involved his principal in great losses, and in the summer of 1822, owing to many losses in various ways, on shipments, endorsements, and the failure of about eighty or ninety houses in Boston at that time, his losses were

* We are indebted to the editor of the New Orleans Commercial Bulletin, for this brief but instructive memoir of an enterprising merchant of that city.

immensely heavy, and he stopped payment with the general *crash*, for about *six hundred thousand dollars*. He however quickly closed up his affairs—paid off all of his small creditors with interest—and with the larger ones he compounded, and paid eighty-one cents in the dollar on those who came upon him with paper on which he was only endorser, but ultimately paid up every one, or *nearly* every one, every dollar, with interest. There was not, it is believed, more than one or two exceptions to subsequent full payment, and if any, it was for cause. In one instance, one creditor put him in prison, and kept him there in a little room of eight by twelve or fourteen feet, for six months, in *close* confinement, refusing to take eighty-one cents in the dollar; but finding at length that his debtor could not be driven in that way, he came to terms, and received what he might have had at first.

After settling up with all, he sailed for Havana in 1823. Having some friends, he commenced operating there and in Rio de Janeiro, in coffee and sugar, and shipping largely to New Orleans principally, but frequently to European ports, to St. Petersburgh, and other places.

Having carried on a successful course of operations for about seven years, he came at length and settled in New Orleans, in the early part of 1830. It may have been remarked that Mr. Fisk was the founder of the very valuable trade in coffee between Rio de Janeiro and New Orleans. He in fact first introduced this article into consumption in that part of the country.

From the time of establishing himself in New Orleans, his operations and course of business are known to have been very large; that he has made and lost immense sums of money. His losses in 1839 and 1840, in about eighteen months, were more than $400,000, of which about $320,000 were in cotton; yet he stood up manfully under them, never faltering, but paying up reclamations without suffering himself to despond, although nearly crushed. He lost by a single individual, for whose family he felt a great sympathy, and desired for their sakes to assist the head of it, although admonished that he was unworthy of his confidence, the sum of $75,000.

When we look at this stripling youth of eighteen years, emerging from the humble pursuits of the farm, and wending his way to the metropolis, and from the thoughts of how to realize the best return from the cultivation of a few acres, to the immense commercial operations of millions in a single year, we are lost in wonder and surprise. This is the result of free school education, and the inculcation by his parents, in childhood, of religious and moral principles, which have been the foundation and polar star of his actions and success under the kind guidance of Providence, through life. Although his operations have been bold, and generally of the largest class, yet he has ever been retiring in his habits, desiring to be unnoticed, and saying but little in regard to what he was doing. He was but little known in reality; all his feelings and impulses were generous and kind, when properly understood; and he has done much in his unobtrusive way to promote the happiness of very many persons, and in several instances, to a large extent. His word was universally appreciated as truth itself—and no man's honor stood fairer. He is gone, we trust, to where the wicked cease from troubling, and the weary are at rest.

During his last illness, the same manly firmness continued to the last moment of his life; never uttering complaint, and when all hope had fled, the day before his departure, giving directions about the disposition of his body; and a short time before the final close, saying he was going, bidding farewell to those around him, asking the hour, and then taking his flight forever.

# MERCANTILE LAW CASES.

CASES DECIDED IN THE SUPREME COURT OF LOUISIANA, AT THE CLOSE OF THE LAST TERM, 1845.

THE following cases, decided in the Supreme Court of Louisiana, at the close of the last term of 1845, were prepared by the reporter of the Supreme Court of that state, and are published under his supervision.*

LAUGHLIN, *et. al.*, *v.* GANAHL.

Plaintiffs having sold to defendant a quantity of cotton, delivered it to him on receiving only a part of the price. The purchaser shipped the cotton, consigning it to a house of which the intervenor was a member, for sale on account of the shipper; and, in consequence of advances made by the intervenor, had the bill of lading made out in the name of the latter. Plaintiffs having sued to recover the balance of the price, sequestered the cotton; and the party who had made the advances intervened, claiming a privilege on its proceeds. *Held*, that by delivering the cotton before payment in full, the venders authorized defendant to consider himself its absolute owner; that by suffering the intervenor to take the bill of lading in his name, defendant gave him the same right to the cotton from the date of the bill, as if he had endorsed to him a bill of lading filled up in defendant's own name, which would transfer the property; that the privilege of the vender, under art. 3,194 of the Civil Code, exists only so long as the property remains in possession of the purchaser; and that under art. 3,214 of the Civil Code, the intervenor was entitled to a privilege on the proceeds of the cotton, for the advances made by him.

The intervenor appealed from a judgment of the District Court of the First District, dismissing his intervention, and decreeing to the plaintiffs the proceeds of the property sequestered in this suit. The judgment was reversed, and one rendered in favor of the plaintiffs.

SELLICK *v.* KELLY, *et. al.*

Under art. 275 of the Code of Practice, or under the 9th section of the act of 7th April, 1826, to obtain a sequestration, the applicant must make oath that he fears that the party having possession of the property may remove it beyond the limits of the state during the pendency of the suit. It is not any privilege of mortgage which the creditor has on the property, but the circumstance which causes him to apprehend that its removal may deprive him of his recourse upon it, that gives the right of sequestration. The requisites for obtaining a sequestration under the act of 1826, where the party has a lien or privilege on the property, are the same as under section 6 of art. 275 of the Code of Practice, in cases in which the creditor has a special mortgage.

Where a sequestration has been illegally issued, the true standard of damages is the probable loss sustained by the defendant in consequence of having been deprived of the free use or disposal of his property. He should be placed as nearly as possible in the situation he would have been in, had the sequestration not been issued.

This was an action before the District Court of the First District against the principal and sureties in a sequestration bond, for damages for an illegal sequestration. There was a judgment below against the defendants for $50, from which they appealed. The judgment in the Supreme Court gave the plaintiff $800, the penalty of the bond.

HYDE *v.* HEPP.

Action to recover of defendant the value of certain carriages, consigned by plaintiff to a third person for sale, and sold under a *fi. fa.* by defendant, and pur-

* Commercial Bulletin.

chased by him as the property of one of his debtors. The consignee, who resided in another state, having since died, plaintiff offered the clerk of the consignee as a witness. On an objection to his testimony, on the ground that his only knowledge of the matters in controversy, being derived from a correspondence between the plaintiff and consignee, not produced nor accounted for, was not the best evidence: *Held*, that his testimony was admissible, and that plaintiff cannot be supposed to have the means of procuring the books and papers of the deceased, nor the letters written to him.

This was an appeal from a judgment of the Parish Court of New Orleans. There was a judgment below in favor of the plaintiff, which was affirmed on appeal.

GANNON *v.* MCGAWLEY.—MCGAWLEY *v.* GANNON.

Action to recover an amount due for drayage, and defence that the price claimed exceeded the value of the services. Plaintiff having proved by a witness that defendant had agreed to pay a certain price therefor, the latter offered to introduce evidence to show that the usual price was less. *Held*, that the evidence was admissible, defendant having a right to introduce evidence to contradict plaintiff's witness, or to establish a different price.

The defendant in an action for an amount claimed for drayage, having previously sued plaintiff, in another court, for a sum alleged to be due to him also for drayage, it was agreed between the parties that the latter suit should be transferred to the court in which the first was pending, to be tried immediately after the first suit. The two suits were ordered by the court to be consolidated and tried together. *Held*, that when the suit was filed in the court to which it was transferred, it became a part of its records, and was under its control in the same manner as if it had originated there, and that the two actions were properly consolidated.

McGawley is appellant from a judgment of the Commercial Court in these suits, in favor of her adversary, for a balance due for drayage. The judgment of the lower Court was affirmed on appeal.

GURLIE *v.* FLOOD.

A judgment discharging the future property of an insolvent who had made a *cessio bonorum* from all proceedings for the recovery of debts previously contracted, though it may not have strictly conformed to the law under which it was rendered, will be conclusive against a creditor who was a party to the proceedings, and took no appeal therefrom within the time prescribed by law.

One who was a creditor of an insolvent at the time of his surrender, cannot take out an execution against property subsequently acquired. Property acquired since the cession cannot be proceeded against by any of the creditors individually. It must be abandoned for the benefit of all the creditors, and those who have become such since the first cession must be paid in preference to the others. C. C. 2,173.

This was an appeal from a judgment of the Parish Court of New Orleans, making absolute a rule taken by defendant on plaintiff to show cause why a *fi. fa.* should not be set aside as having been illegally issued. The judgment below was affirmed.

GAILLARD *v.* THE CITIZENS' BANK OF LOUISIANA.

The managers of a bank, appointed under the provisions of the 29th section of the act of 14th March, 1842, providing for the liquidation of banks, may be sued for any cause of action, though arising under the administration of former boards of directors.

Though a bank has been put in liquidation under the 29th section of the act of 14th March, 1842, and an order has been made staying all proceedings against it, a creditor may sue the bank in the court before which the proceedings for a liquidation are pending, where he only prays for a judgment recognizing his claim, and ordering it to be paid in course of administration.

The plaintiff appealed from a judgment of the District Court of the First Dis-

trict, dismissing his suit against the Citizens' Bank, on the ground that the claim should have been established in the *concurso*, contradictorily with the creditors of the bank. The judgment was reversed, and the case remanded for further proceedings.

MANDION *v.* THE FIREMEN'S INSURANCE COMPANY OF NEW ORLEANS.

A stockholder in an insolvent company, a part of whose subscription is unpaid, cannot, by a donation to an insolvent individual, made to get rid of his liability for such unpaid stock, avoid his responsibility as a stockholder. A creditor, having a *fieri facias* against the company, may proceed against him in the manner pointed out by the 13th section of the act of 20th March, 1839, and, on proving that the donation was not real, recover judgment for any balance due on the stock.

James Calloway appealed from a judgment of the Commercial Court, condemning him to pay a balance due on stock of the Firemen's Insurance Company. The judgment of the lower court was affirmed.

MANDION *v.* THE FIREMEN'S INSURANCE COMPANY.

Where stock on which a balance was still due on account of the original subscription, was transferred to a third person merely to secure a loan, and, on payment of the loan, was retransferred, such third person will not be liable to creditors of the Company for any balance due on the shares, where the transfer, though an absolute one on its face, was not signed and accepted so as to preclude him from showing that it was intended only as a security.

The plaintiff appealed from a judgment of the Commercial Court in favor of Spangenberg, discharging him from a liability for the balance due on certain shares of the Firemen's Insurance Company, transferred to him by Ferriday as collateral security. The judgment below was affirmed on appeal.

SHELDON *v.* THE NEW ORLEANS CANAL AND BANKING COMPANY.

The mere seizure under a *fi. fa.* of a judgment in favor of a debtor, does not divest the property of the latter, and transfer it to the seizing creditor. It gives him at most a right to proceed and sell the judgment, and to be paid by preference out of the proceeds. A *fi. fa.* is the warrant of the sheriff, authorizing him to seize property and keep it, and to sell it to satisfy the judgment under which it was issued. When a seizure has been made, the sheriff is not bound to return the writ, though it have subsequently expired. He may retain it, and sell the property seized; if he returns the writ, he will be without authority to hold, or dispose of the property; and any privilege resulting from the seizure will cease to exist.

Where the proceeds of property seized and sold under a *fi. fa.*, are claimed in virtue of a previous seizure under a *fi. fa.*, the claimant must oppose, by way of third opposition, the application of the proceeds to the satisfaction of the second execution. C. C. 396, 397, 401, 402.

This was an appeal from a judgment of the District Court of the First District, in a contest between certain creditors of the plaintiff, Sheldon. The judgment below was affirmed.

SUCCESSION OF DURNFORD—MCDONOGH, APPELLANT.

The obligations of a warrantor depend upon the law in force at the time of the sale.

Under the Code of 1808, the vender was bound, in case of eviction of the purchaser, to pay him, in addition to the price, &c., the increased value of the property at the date of the eviction, though the purchaser did not contribute to such increase. Book III., tit. VI., arts. 54, 57. The original price, added to the rents and profits, does not necessarily constitute the measure by which the liability of the warrantor is to be measured; other things must be taken into consideration; and the general rule, that damages are to be measured by the loss actually sustained, and not by the gains of which the party has been deprived, is inapplicable.

The curator of a succession having credited himself in his account with a sum

exceeding the amount of the assets of the succession in his hands, claimed in consequence of his eviction from land sold to him by the deceased, on the opposition of the heirs it was decided, that the claim of the curator, so far as it exceeded the assets in his hands, was prescribed; and judgment was rendered allowing his claim to the amount of such assets. On appeal: *Held*, that the claim was an entire one, arising from the same cause, and could not be prescribed in part; and that the account should be homologated.

McDonogh appealed from a judgment of the Probate Court of New Orleans, allowing him but a part of a claim set up by him as the value of certain lands sold to him by the deceased. The judgment below was reversed, and instead of $9,809 26, the appellant was allowed a credit of $18,000.

DELAVIGNE, SYNDIC, *v.* GAIENNIE, *et. al.*

A recorder of mortgages cannot be compelled to erase a mortgage without making the mortgagee a party to the proceedings, unless a judgment ordering the erasure has been rendered contradictorily with the latter.

Where a mortgage has been erased in pursuance of a judgment of a court of competent jurisdiction, rights acquired by subsequent mortgagees, before any proceedings to annul the judgment, will not be affected by any illegality in it. Third persons are not bound to look beyond the judgment, which, if rendered by a court of competent jurisdiction, must have its full effect, and can only be annulled by a direct action. *Aliter*, as to the parties themselves, or their *ayans—cause* with notice; as to them, the rights of a mortgagee cannot be affected by any order or decree in a case to which he was not a party.

The Citizens' Bank appealed in this case from a judgment of the District Court of the First District in favor of the plaintiff, ordering the reinstatement in its original position, of a mortgage in his favor, (which had been erased under a judgment of Court) and giving him a preference over the appellants, who were subsequent mortgagees. The judgment below was reversed, and the petition dismissed.

BARKER *et. al.*, *v.* PHILLIPS.

The property of a debtor being the common pledge of his creditors, every act done by him with intent to deprive them of their eventual rights upon his property, is illegal. C. C. 1,963, 1,964.

Where one purchases property from an absconding debtor, with notice that his object in selling was to deprive his creditors of their recourse upon it, and such purchase operates to their injury, it will be annulled. C. C. 1,973. But the purchaser, though in bad faith, will be entitled to a restitution of so much of the consideration, or price paid by him, as he shall prove to have enured to the benefit of the creditors, by adding to the amount applicable to the payment of their debts. C. C. 1,977.

The intervenor, W. Haynes, claiming to be the owner of certain goods by purchase from the defendant, appealed from a judgment of the Commercial Court in this case, dismissing his intervention. The judgment was affirmed so far as it annulled the sale to the intervenor; but the latter was decreed to receive, out of the proceeds of the goods, a portion of the price paid by him, which he might prove to have enured to the benefit of the attaching creditors.

CLARK *v.* HARTWELL.

Where a party notified by his adversary to attend at a certain hour at a commissioner's office for the purpose of taking the deposition of a witness, attends at the appointed hour, and waits for half an hour without the commissioner's appearing, and leaves, and after his departure the commissioner arrives, and proceeds to take the deposition, it will be inadmissible on the trial.

The defendant appealed from a judgment of the Parish Court of New Orleans, rendered against him in an action for the contract price of a tomb. The judgment below was affirmed.

# COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE AND REVIEW.

STATE OF THE COMMERCIAL WORLD—UNITED STATES FINANCES—REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE OF NEW YORK STATE CANALS—NEW YORK CANAL DEBT—DEBT OF PENNSYLVANIA—QUANTITIES OF IRON TRANSPORTED OVER TWO LINES OF RAILROAD, FROM PHILADELPHIA TO NEW YORK—DEBT OF MICHIGAN—MICHIGAN RAILROAD EARNINGS—FINANCES OF MARYLAND—DEBT OF SOUTH CAROLINA—KENTUCKY STATE DEBT—KENTUCKY SOURCES OF REVENUE—AMOUNT OF BONDS ISSUED BY THE STATE OF GEORGIA—TERRITORIAL DEBT OF FLORIDA—TAXABLE VALUATIONS, AND DEBTS OF THE STATES OF OHIO, INDIANA, KENTUCKY, MICHIGAN, GEORGIA, PENNSYLVANIA, AND NEW YORK—CANAL TOLLS OF THE STATES OF NEW YORK, OHIO, AND PENNSYLVANIA, ETC., ETC., ETC.

The state of the commercial world is evidently approaching a crisis, brought on by the workings for thirty years of peace, of systems of commercial legislation and finance, that had their origin in, and their operation during, almost constant wars in Europe. The commercial policy of England, since the peace of 1815, has been undergoing a constant and gradual change, in the relations of restrictions and ameliorations of those prohibitions which formerly pervaded her commerce to a very great extent. In the same period, during which, these changes have been brought about, her population and manufacturing industry have advanced in a much greater degree than ever before. Although in almost every other particular, England has become more liberal in her policies, she has hitherto adhered to a strictly protective system, in relation to her corn laws. That is to say, by the operation of the sliding scale of duties, she has maintained in England a price for food higher than that of other countries. By those means, the production of home-grown produce has been promoted to a very great extent; not, perhaps, that her farmers generally have reaped a greater reward for their industry than those of other countries, because large tracts of poor lands have been brought under cultivation, that under a state of free trade could not compete with those better suited to the culture. In keeping prices at a level which would remunerate production in such locations, those of more favored regions have necessarily derived large profits, and the aid of science has been called in to extract from all locations, as far as possible, sufficient for the consumption of the whole population. The latter has, however, now swollen beyond the capacity of the land to feed; and the time has come, not only to draw large supplies from abroad, but to do so on such terms as will make food come as cheap as possible to the people of England. The entire repeal of the duties on food, is therefore expected to be the great result of the present session of parliament, a result which will doubtless affect, in a most extraordinary manner, the interests of the whole commercial world. The event is looked for with the greatest interest by the mercantile community. We are inclined to think that the effect of an immediate entire repeal of duties, will have far less immediate influence upon affairs than is apprehended. The supply of corn in England is very large, larger than ever, and prices of food are by no means high in England, and do not greatly exceed those of the continent; consequently, a more favorable time to open the ports could not be devised. A very large trade must, however, ultimately grow up in breadstuffs; an equalization of prices all over the world, will bring the public lands of the west in competition with all others, and a good deal of the poor land in England will be turned into sheep-walks, thus increasing the demand for foreign corn, also enhanced by the low prices that a free port will bring about.

Political affairs also seem to be approaching a crisis, although nothing material has occurred to affect commercial affairs since the date of our last number. Money has continued high in price, and difficult to be obtained, by reason rather of the indisposition to lend during the present state of uncertainty, than of any over-demand. A great deal of

money has been paid off by some of the governments, and the gradual approximation to restored credit, by the delinquent states, is calculated to have a very beneficial influence upon the commercial world, as soon as the present state of uncertainty shall have passed. The operations of the federal treasury have been during the past year as follows:—

UNITED STATES FINANCES.

*Revenue.*

| | 1844. | 1845. | Increase. | Decrease. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Customs,..... | $26,183,571 | $27,528,113 | $1,344,542 | ..... |
| Lands, &c.,..... | 2,320,947 | 2,241,021 | ..... | $79,926 |
| Total,..... | $28,504,518 | $29,769,134 | $1,264,616 | ..... |
| *Expenses.* | | | | |
| Current,..... | $21,182,911 | $23,192,979 | $2,610,068 | ..... |
| Debt,..... | 11,775,916 | 6,775,227 | ..... | $5,000,689 |
| Total expense,..... | $32,958,827 | $29,968,206 | ..... | $2,990,621 |
| Debt outstanding Dec. 1,... | 23,850,673 | 17,075,445 | ..... | 6,775,227 |
| Balance in treasury,..... | 7,857,379 | 7,658,306 | ..... | 199,073 |

The federal government has reduced its debt during the year by the payment of the loan of 1841, due January, 1845, and the retirement of the outstanding treasury notes. The expenditures for the year ending July 1, 1846, are estimated to exceed the revenues by $2,807,051 90, unless the tariff is so reduced as to admit of an increase in the customs revenues. On the whole, the finances of the federal government are in a flourishing condition. Those of the state of New York are in a still better condition, and large reductions of the outstanding canal debt have taken place, being paid off as they fell due, out of the surplus revenues of the canals. During the past year the revenues and expenses of the canals have been as follows:—

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE ON NEW YORK STATE CANALS.

| *Revenue.* | | *Expenses.* | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Tolls,..... | $2,374,874 03 | Interest of debt,..... | $1,057,474 10 |
| Water rents,..... | 1,525 87 | Given to general fund,... | 200,000 00 |
| Interest canal revenue,... | 41,270 67 | Repairs, &c.,..... | 703,104 54 |
| Total,..... | $2,417,670 57 | Total,..... | $1,960,578 64 |
| Surplus applicable to principal of debt,..... | | | 457,091 93 |

The canal debt has been diminished as follows:—

NEW YORK CANAL DEBT.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Amount of debt July, 1845,..... | | $20,958,905 58 |
| Paid July, 1845, Erie and Champlain Canal debt,.. | $1,380,250 25 | |
| Paid Jan. 1, 1845, Chenango " .. | 2,362,535 66 | |
| Payable July 1, 1846,..... | 571,304 00 | |
| Total paid,..... | | 4,314,089 91 |
| Amount of debt July, 1846,..... | | $16,644,815 67 |

This debt bears interest as follows:—

| | | Annual interest. |
|---|---|---|
| 7 per cent stock,..... | $3,647,136 00 | $255,299 52 |
| 6 " ..... | 1,481,782 00 | 88,906 92 |
| 5 " ..... | 11,515,897 57 | 575,794 88 |
| Total in July, 1843,..... | $16,644,815 57 | $920,001 32 |
| Debt September, 1844,..... | 20,713,905 58 | 1,126,397 90 |
| Diminution,..... | $4,069,090 01 | $206,396 58 |

The amount of the general fund debt is $5,889,549, mostly composed of stocks issued to railroad companies that failed. The whole debt of the state is therefore $22,534,364. The diminution in the charge upon the canal fund through the reduction of the debt will greatly accelerate the operation of the sinking fund, and in a few years the state of New York will be possessed of the noble revenues of the canal free of debt; and the large reductions of toll, which such an event will permit, must ever insure the Erie canal as the most important avenue to market for western produce, more particularly, as that the prospect of open ports in England for western produce, will task every avenue to the utmost of its capacity, to forward produce.

Pennsylvania last year resumed her payments, and has maintained them through the year, and with sufficient means provided to discharge the two next accumulations of interest, and is now organizing and consolidating her finances so as to make permanent her restored credit. The treasurer's report, Mr. James R. Snowden, in reviewing the state affairs, points out such amendments of existing laws, as will, in his opinion, place the means of the commonwealth beyond contingency. The debt of the state is given as follows:—

DEBT OF PENNSYLVANIA, DEC. 1, 1845.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 6 per cent stock debt, | | $1,752,335 |
| 5 " " | | 34,786,932 |
| 4 " " | | 200,000 |
| Total stock debt, | | $36,739,267 |
| Relief notes circulating, | | 1,258,572 |
| Interest certificates, | $2,689,022 | |
| " unclaimed, | 28,392 | |
| " on certificates to August, 1845, | 171,389 | |
| | | 2,888,803 |
| Domestic creditors, | | 99,751 |
| Total debt, Dec. 1, 1845, | | $40,986,393 |

The estimates of the revenue and expenditures for 1846 are as follows:—

| *Revenue.* | | *Expenditure.* | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Tax, real and personal, | $1,300,000 | Interest, | $2,023,996 |
| Other taxes, | 651,700 | Other expense, | 912,500 |
| Tolls, | 1,275,000 | Public works, | 577,500 |
| Total, | $3,226,700 | Total, | $3,513,996 |
| Excess expense, | | | 287,296 |
| Available balance, December, 1845, | | | 384,886 |
| Balance, December, 1846, | | | $97,590 |

The estimate for tolls is $121,000 more than last year, and the expenses of the works $83,840 less, making a difference of revenue equal to $204,840. A very important feature in the finances of the state is, however, the fact that during the past year the tax collected is greater than the amount assessed. The assessments and collections have been as follows:—

| Years. | Tax assessed. | Tax collected. | Excess assessment. | Exc. coll'n. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1841, | $523,200 44 | $33,292 77 | $489,907 67 | ..... |
| 1842, | 663,075 12 | 486,635 85 | 176,439 27 | ..... |
| 1843, | 992,206 81 | 553,911 38 | 438,295 43 | ..... |
| 1844, | 946,055 60 | 751,210 01 | 194,845 59 | ..... |
| 1845, | 1,300,751 56 | 1,318,332 02 | ..... | $17,580 46 |
| Total, | $4,425,289 53 | $3,143,382 03 | | |

The excess of assessment is $1,281,907 20, but the balance outstanding is $273,535 80, after deducting $408,371 40 for expenditures and collections. This is a remarkable im-

provement in the payment of the state dues, and evinces the fact that the people of Pennsylvania are as prompt as any in the world to pay taxes when they are firmly and fairly levied. The past failure has been owing entirely to the injurious influence of the overwrought credits of former years. The repeal, in February, 1836, of the tax on real and personal property, left the whole system of finance in a measure to be reorganized when the "promise-mine" failed. During the past years, it has gradually been improving, and the recommendations of the present treasurer point out such defects as require to be remedied, so as to insure the future full and regular collection of the revenue, to an extent sufficient to meet all the demands upon the treasury. The treasurer also advises a tax upon coal, the proceeds of which to be appropriated to a sinking fund. He states that, during the past year, 2,200,000 tons have been sent to market; and estimates that, for the future, a tax of 10 cents per ton will yield $260,000 per annum, for the purposes of a sinking fund. This tax has been often proposed before, and no doubt would operate well for the interests of Pennsylvania, by throwing upon New York and the east the tax; but how far it is competent for Pennsylvania to tax one article of business more than another, is a question—for instance, the iron trade. The following quantities have last year been transported over two lines from Philadelphia to New York:—

| | 1st Line. | | 2d Line. | | Total 2 Lines. | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Tons. | Cwts. | Tons. | Cwts. | Tons. | Cwts. |
| Bar,..... | 462 | 14 | 667 | 2 | 1,129 | 16 |
| Pig,..... | 3,281 | 19 | 2,447 | 0 | 5,728 | 19 |
| Bloom,..... | 140 | 9 | 109 | 12 | 250 | 1 |
| Sheet,..... | 14 | 17 | 23 | 3 | 38 | 0 |
| Boiler,..... | 417 | 1 | 1,600 | 12 | 1,647 | 13 |
| Cast,..... | 175 | 5 | 159 | 19 | 335 | 4 |
| Total,..... | 5,007 | 12 | 4,492 | 7 | 9,499 | 19 |

There is no reason why iron or any other commodity should not be taxed as well as coal. Pennsylvania has, however, permanently resumed her place as a debt-paying state.

The finances of Indiana have also become interesting. A proposition has been made by Mr. Butler, as the agent of the bondholders, to the legislature of the state, and it has now assumed the shape of a bill before the legislature, which, in all probability, will become a law. It is known that no interest has been paid on the public debt of Indiana since January, 1841, but the resources of the state have in that time considerably improved; that is, her taxable property increases at the rate of $6,000,000 per annum, and her taxable polls 6,000 per annum; and the time has arrived, when her ability to pay should be put to the test. The bondholders, in making their proposition through Mr. Butler, have not assumed, however, that Indiana is, or will be able to pay by taxation more than one-half the annual interest; but they depend upon the great Wabash and Erie canal of Indiana, connecting the Ohio river at Evansville with Lake Erie at Toledo, Ohio, as a source of revenue capable of discharging in full all of principal and interest that is not paid by taxation. That work, however, is incomplete. It is in operation only from Lafayette, Indiana, north to the Ohio line. The federal government, however, has made a donation of some 800,000 acres of land towards the completion of the work, which, when done, will doubtless be one of the most valuable in the Union. The position of Indiana, in respect to that work, is similar to that of Illinois, in relation to her great canal. The proposition, therefore, is, that Indiana should pay by taxation a portion of the interest on her public debt, and place the whole in a train of settlement, provided that the bondholders advance the funds to complete the canal, and take that canal and its lands in trust; to sell the lands on the completion of the work, at prices not under $1 25, $2, and $2 50 per acre, according to quality; out of the proceeds discharge the loan, principal and interest, for the completion of the work, and thereafter depend upon its revenues for 2½ per cent of the interest of the debt, as it will stand January, 1853, and for

one-half of the arrearage interest, from January, 1841, to January, 1843; and to carry out this, the bondholders are to advance $2,250,000 for the completion of the canal. In this state of things, a law has been proposed, which provides for the imposition of a tax of 25 cents on $100 of valuation, and a poll tax of 75 cents, out of the proceeds of which is to be paid 2 per cent on the interest of the state debt from January, 1847, to January, 1853, inclusive. This tax, it is supposed, based on the progressive increase of the state property, will swell in productiveness, and be ample not only to discharge the domestic debt, which is now $638,435, but pay the 2 per cent up to January, 1853, and thereafter pay 2½ per cent on the whole debt, with arrearages added, and to suffer the accumulation of a surplus as a sinking fund. The first payment of interest on the public debt is to take place January, 1847, and the whole debt will then be as follows:—

| | |
|---|---|
| Principal of debt,..... | $11,090,000 |
| Arrears of interest, January, 1841, to January, 1847,..... | 3,327,000 |
| Total,..... | $14,417,000 |

Now the laws provide that the tax shall pay 2 per cent on the principal of the debt, making the first payment July, 1847; the revenues of the canal to yield 2½ per cent, and these payments 2 per cent from the tax, and 2½ per cent from the canal, making together 4½ per cent, to continue up to Jan. 1st, 1853, or six years; at which time it is evident there will have been a deficit of ½ per cent per annum, for six years, from 1847, amounting to $332,700, and also the $3,327,000 arrearage due January, 1847, when the payments commenced. In 1853 one-half the arrearage due January, 1847, that is to say $1,663,500, and the amount of the ½ per cent arrears, from 1847 to 1853, being $332,700, shall be added to the principal, and the debt will then stand as follows:—

| | |
|---|---|
| Principal of debt,..... | $11,090,000 |
| One-half arrears, 1841 to 1847,..... | 1,663,500 |
| One-half per cent arrearage, 1847 to 1853,..... | 332,700 |
| Total debt, 1853,..... | $13,086,200 |
| Interest at 5 per cent per annum,..... | 654,310 |

From that time forth, the tax is to pay one-half of this interest, or $327,155, and the canal tolls the remaining $327,155. There will then be unprovided for, the remaining half of the arrearage interest due from 1841 to 1847, amounting to $1,663,500; for this, a special stock, bearing 5 per cent interest, is to be issued, and which is also to include any deficit from the above sums that may arise from other sources. This special stock to be chargeable only against the canal, its tolls and lands; and the faith of the state is *not* pledged that they will be sufficient to discharge it. These provisions certainly make the payment of the debt as easy to the people of Indiana as could reasonably be expected, and involve a great loss of interest to the bondholders; that is to say, on the $3,327,000 due the bondholders January, 1847, up to 1853, no interest is paid; and this interest would amount to $998,100, without reckoning the back interest due on each coupon from the time it was dishonored. The canal and its lands is chargeable, therefore, with the loan for its completion, $2,250,000, and the special stock of $1,663,500; making together $3,913,500, which may probably be paid from the canal lands. It has also to pay annually 6 per cent on the loan for its completion, say $135,000 per annum, and 2½ per cent on the state debt, say $327,155, making $462,155 over and above its current expenses. This is a large sum to pay, and when the bondholders have so much confidence in the resources of Indiana as to accept the canal as security for payments so large, surely the people of Indiana should have sufficient confidence in themselves to discharge the remainder of the claim by taxation; and they will, no doubt.

The state of Michigan also should have commenced the payment of the interest on that portion of the $5,000,000 loan negotiated with the Morris Canal Bank, for which she received pay. The debt of Michigan is as follows:—

DEBT OF MICHIGAN.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Due on $5,000,000 loan, including interest to July, 1845, | | $2,990,000 |
| Palmyra and Jacksonburgh Railroad bonds, | $20,000 | |
| " " " " interest to Nov., 1844, | 4,900 | |
| | | 24,900 |
| Detroit and Pontiac Railroad, | $100,000 | |
| " " " interest to July, 1844, | 17,280 | |
| | | 117,280 |
| University bonds, | $39,212 | |
| General fund do., | 100,000 | |
| Penitentiary do., | 60,000 | |
| " do., interest, | 8,850 | |
| Delinquent tax bonds, | 15,000 | |
| | | 223,060 |
| Total fund debt, | | $3,335,242 |
| Unfunded debt and interest, | | 721,935 |
| Total debt July 1, 1844, | | $4,077,177 |
| " 1845, | | 4,121,720 |

The chief revenues of the state, applicable to the interest, are the revenues of the two railroads belonging to the state, the Central and the Southern; which have progressed as follows:—

MICHIGAN RAILROAD EARNINGS.

| | 1845. | 1844. | 1843. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Central railway, | $202,746 | $211,170 | $149,989 |
| Southern, | 62,736 | 60,342 | 24,261 |
| Total, | $265,482 | $271,512 | $174,248 |

The finances of the state of Maryland have also exhibited a great improvement during the past year. The revenue and expenses have been as follows:—

| *Revenues.* | | *Expenses.* | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Ordinary, | $283,950 91 | Ordinary, | $204,612 68 |
| " previous year, | 39,217 33 | Hospital, | 5,000 00 |
| Tobacco inspection, | 33,973 61 | Tobacco warehouse, | 24,651 99 |
| Taxes, | 507,781 04 | Public buildings, | 2,899 86 |
| Companies, | 94,800 00 | Interest on debt, | 710,784 51 |
| Repaid, | 6,865 91 | | |
| Total, | $966,589 00 | Total, | $948,448 84 |

This shows an excess of $18,140 16 in the revenues, and a consequent increase of the balance in the treasury to $199,412 16 to December 1, 1845, when an amount equal to $1,436,177 57 was due for arrearage interest. The amount received from incorporated companies, particularly the Susquehanna canal, has been increased by an important sum during the last year, and they afford the prospect of yielding a yearly increasing revenue, so as eventually to aid in redeeming the state from her difficulties.

The state of South Carolina has reduced its debt, during the past year, by the sum of $189,652 65, and it now amounts to $3,234,502 31; being reduced from $4,553,770 91 in January, 1840.

The debt of the state of Kentucky is as follows:—

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 5 per cent bonds, payable 35 years after date, | | $165,000 |
| 5 " " 30 " | | 450,000 |
| 6 " " ... " | | 3,579,000 |
| 6 " " 6 " | | 100,000 |
| 6 " " " | for repair of railroad, | 84,000 |
| Money borrowed from Bank of Louisville, | | 30,000 |
| Total amount, | | $4,408,400 |

Kentucky owns $1,270,500 of the stocks of the several banks of the state. The interest on the state debt is paid regularly in the city of New York, and the receipts of the sinking fund progress in a satisfactory manner. The chief sources of revenue are as follows:—

| | 1843. | 1844. | 1845. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Turnpike tolls, | $13,502 08 | $18,805 01 | $24,869 41 |
| Kentucky river, | 3,900 00 | 10,863 45 | 17,244 15 |

The debt of the state of Georgia is given by the state treasurer as follows:—

AMOUNT OF BONDS ISSUED BY THE STATE OF GEORGIA, NOVEMBER 3D, 1845.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Federal bonds at 6 per cent, | | $1,435,250 |
| Interest paid this amount, at 6 per cent, | $83,110 00 | |
| Sterling bonds at 5 per cent, | | 292,510 |
| Interest paid this year, 5 per cent, | 20,933 83 | Sterl. Ex. 9½ |
| Total, | $104,043 83 | $1,727,760 |

The legislature of the state of Florida have been in session, but the old territorial debt does not appear to attract the attention of any of its rulers; and the probability is, that nothing will be done for its discharge.

We may enumerate the taxable valuations, and debts of the leading states above mentioned, as follows:—

| States. | Taxables. | Debt. |
|---|---|---|
| Ohio, | $144,160,469 | $20,110,000 |
| Indiana, | 118,500,000 | 14,417,000 |
| Kentucky, | 228,488,161 | 4,408,400 |
| Michigan, | 28,922,098 | 4,121,720 |
| Georgia, | 64,900,000 | 1,727,760 |
| Pennsylvania, | 420,296,130 | 40,986,393 |
| New York, | 599,891,923 | 22,534,364 |
| Maryland, | 177,139,645 | 13,400,000 |
| Total, 8 states, | $1,782,298,426 | $121,705,637 |

The debts of Ohio, Indiana, Pennsylvania, and New York, were contracted for the construction of avenues to market, by which the farm produce of the interior should be made available. The works of the states, except that of Indiana, have been in operation for years; but the Wabash and Erie Canal has only been partially active, and it yielded, during the last year, about $46,000 of tolls, only. The tolls on the works of Ohio, Pennsylvania, and New York, have been as follows:—

CANAL TOLLS OF NEW YORK, OHIO, AND PENNSYLVANIA.

| Years. | Pennsylvania. | Ohio. | New York. | Total. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1841, | $1,079,896 | $516,856 | $2,034,882 | $3,631,624 |
| 1842, | 920,499 | 475,531 | 1,749,197 | 3,145,227 |
| 1843, | 1,029,401 | 472,554 | 2,081,590 | 3,573,545 |
| 1844, | 1,164,325 | 519,676 | 2,446,374 | 4,130,375 |
| 1845, | 1,154,591 | 466,698 | 2,646,453 | 4,267,642 |

There is an aggregate increase in the whole, but it is not to be disguised that, but for the important influence of the foreign news in bringing forward produce, towards the close of the season, that otherwise would not have reached market, the tolls of New York would scarcely have exhibited an excess over last year. The revenues of New York, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Michigan, Maryland, Indiana, and Illinois, and the discharge of their debts, are mainly dependent upon the business of their public works, which consists in bearing forward to market the produce of the soil. When, therefore, as in the case of New York, a momentary foreign demand had the effect, at an opportune moment, to raise the revenues of the state, and facilitate the payment of the large sums that have been discharged, what may not be expected when that demand, under the abolition of the corn laws, becomes steady, regular, and yearly increasing in magnitude, drawing from every quarter supplies to meet the vast wants of Great Britain?

The advices by the Hibernia,-down to the 4th of January, inform us of the abortive attempt of Lord John Russell to construct a ministry, and the consequent recall of Sir Robert Peel to power, with his former ministry, embracing some unimportant modification. The basis of the restoration is said to be a compromise on the corn question, so far as to do away with the sliding scale, and to impose a fixed duty, at some rate ranging from 3*s.* to 10*s.* per quarter. The average duty now paid under the sliding scale, on imports of corn, is scarcely 8*s.* Some modification, however, will take place, and that speedily. In a political point of view, the news is pacific; more particularly in that the formation of a new ministry was frustrated by the known warlike policy of some of its necessary members. The great want of the country, extended markets for its goods, can be satisfied only by a very liberal commercial policy. If that policy is responded to by other nations, the object for which England maintains her colonial policy will have been attained by other means. The state of commercial affairs, which had been disturbed by fears in relation to the harvest, were becoming quieted, as the foundation for them is discovered to have been exaggerated. The general check which had been given to the purchase of goods, by apprehensions of the usual effects of a high price for food, was becoming relaxed, and trade began to revive generally; while, from a similar cause, the spirit of enterprise having been in abeyance, and an indisposition to lend money prevalent, a considerable diminution in outstanding obligations had resulted; which had, in its turn, produced an abundance of money; and, as fears abated, a fall in its price. The misgivings in relation to the result of the railroad operations, were also passing away. The exchanges continue in favor of England; yet the bullion in the bank, down to the close of the year, continued to diminish. The leading features of the bank were as follows:—

BANK OF ENGLAND.

| | July 26. | Aug. 9. | Sept. 27. | Nov. 22. | Dec. 27. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Notes issued,..... | £29,243,520 | £29,141,605 | £28,557,990 | £27,036,550 | £26,771,510 |
| Gold coin and bullion, | 13,244,126 | 13,151,836 | 12,717,050 | 11,414,931 | 11,189,484 |
| Silver bullion,..... | 1,999,394 | 1,989,769 | 1,840,940 | 1,594,619 | 1,582,026 |
| *Banking Dep't.* | | | | | |
| Rest,..... | £3,321,972 | £3,340,750 | £3,621,711 | £3,252,209 | £3,227,443 |
| Public deposits,..... | 2,981,908 | 4,034,767 | 8,802,110 | 7,363,168 | 9,698,409 |
| Other deposits,..... | 10,745,613 | 10,187,780 | 8,070,212 | 9,024,223 | 8,482,239 |
| Seven day and other bills,..... | 1,085,211 | 1,350,220 | 1,000,311 | 1,063,589 | 961,859 |
| Governm't securities, | 13,579,314 | 13,321,844 | 13,348,643 | 13,201,863 | 13,201,863 |
| Other securities,..... | 10,607,877 | 11,634,159 | 14,149,003 | 15,454,390 | 16,252,051 |
| Notes,..... | 7,942,485 | 7,682,465 | 7,946,995 | 6,076,985 | 6,914,660 |
| Gold and silver coin,. | 549,998 | 528,049 | 602,703 | 522,951 | 554,376 |

The notes put out by the issue department have diminished £2,500,000, or nearly 10 per cent, while the notes held by the bank have diminished but £1,000,000. Gold coin and bullion has been drawn from the bank by the return of notes to the issue department, to the extent of £2,100,000, which has probably passed into circulation. The amount of private securities held by the bank, has become very large, and may have reference to the approaching railroad settlements. The specie in bank and in England, is very large, and the price of wheat on the continent is nearly as high as in England. These two circumstances, eminently conspire to make the present time the most auspicious for a change in the corn laws.

The news was well received on this side of the water, and tended to impart a considerable degree of cheerfulness to the markets generally.

# COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

## CHINESE TARIFF OF IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

We published in the Merchants' Magazine for January, 1846, an official copy of the treaty between the United States and China—we now give, below, the tariff of duties to be levied on imported and exported merchandise at the five ports, as settled by that treaty:—

TARIFF OF DUTIES TO BE LEVIED ON IMPORTED AND EXPORTED MERCHANDISE AT THE FIVE PORTS.

The duties which it is agreed shall be paid upon goods imported and exported by the United States, at the custom-houses of Canton, Amoy, Fuchow, Ningpo, and Shanghai, are as follows, the articles being arranged in classes, viz:

### *Exports.*

[A tael is equal to $1 25 to $1 40; a mace, 12½ to 14 cents; a candareen, 100th part of a mace.]

#### Class I.—*Alum, Oils, &c.*

| Articles of merchandise. | Taels. | Mace. | Cand. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Alum, i. e., white alum, formerly white alum and blue stone,...per 100 catties* | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| Anniseed oil, not formerly contained in the tariff,..... | 5 | 0 | 0 |
| Cassia oil, " " " " ..... | 5 | 0 | 0 |

#### Class II.—*Tea, Spices, &c.*

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Tea, formerly divided into fine and native black, and fine and native green teas,.....per 100 catties | 2 | 5 | 0 |
| Anniseed star,..... | 0 | 5 | 0 |
| Musk,.....each catty | 0 | 5 | 0 |

#### Class III.—*Drugs.*

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Capoon cutcheny,.....per 100 catties | 0 | 3 | 0 |
| Camphor,..... | 1 | 5 | 0 |
| Arsenic, under different Chinese names,..... | 0 | 7 | 5 |
| Cassia,..... | 0 | 7 | 5 |
| Cassia buds, not formerly contained in the tariff,..... | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| China root,..... | 0 | 2 | 0 |
| Cubebs, not formerly in tariff,..... | 1 | 5 | 0 |
| Galingal,..... | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| Haztall,..... | 0 | 5 | 0 |
| Rhubarb,..... | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| Turmeric,..... | 0 | 2 | 0 |

#### Class IV.—*Sundries.*

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Bangles, not formerly in tariff,.....per 100 catties | 0 | 5 | 0 |
| Bamboo screens and bamboo ware,..... | 0 | 2 | 0 |
| Corals, native or false corals, not formerly in the tariff,..... | 0 | 5 | 0 |
| Crackers and fire-works, formerly classed as rockets,..... | 0 | 7 | 5 |
| Fans, (feather fans, &c.,) not formerly in the tariff,..... | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| Glass, glass-ware of all kinds, formerly classed as native crystal-ware,..... | 0 | 5 | 0 |
| Glass beads, or false pearls,..... | 0 | 5 | 0 |
| Kittisols, or paper umbrellas,..... | 0 | 5 | 0 |
| Marble, marble slabs, not formerly in the tariff,..... | 0 | 2 | 0 |
| Rice paper pictures,..... | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| Paper fans,..... | 0 | 5 | 0 |
| Pearls, (false,) not formerly in the tariff,..... | 0 | 5 | 0 |

* 1⅓ pounds.

CHINESE TARIFF OF IMPORTS AND EXPORTS—Continued.

| Articles of merchandise. | | Tels. | Mace. | Cand. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **CLASS V.—*Painters' Stores, &c.*** | | | | |
| Brass leaf, | per 100 catties | 1 | 5 | 0 |
| Gamboge, | | 2 | 0 | 0 |
| Red lead, | | 0 | 5 | 0 |
| Glue, as fish-glue, cowhide-glue, &c., | | 0 | 5 | 0 |
| Paper, stationery, | | 0 | 5 | 0 |
| Tin-foil, | | 0 | 5 | 0 |
| Vermillion, | | 3 | 0 | 0 |
| Paintings, (large,) formerly divided into large and small paintings, | each | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| White lead, | per 100 catties | 0 | 2 | 5 |
| **CLASS VI.—*Wares of various kinds.*** | | | | |
| Bone and horn ware, | per 100 catties | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| China ware, fine and coarse, formerly classed as fine native, coarse, and middling, | | 0 | 5 | 0 |
| Copper ware and pewter ware, | | 0 | 5 | 0 |
| Manufactures of wood, furniture, &c., | | 0 | 2 | 0 |
| Ivory ware, all carved ivory work included, formerly divided into ivory and ivory carvings, | | 5 | 0 | 0 |
| Lacquered ware, | | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| Mother-of-pearl ware, | | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| Rattan ware, rattan and bamboo work, | | 0 | 2 | 0 |
| Sandal-wood ware, | | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| Gold and silver ware, formerly divided into gold ware and silver ware, | | 10 | 0 | 0 |
| Tortoise-shell ware, | | 10 | 0 | 0 |
| Leather trunks and boxes, | | 0 | 2 | 0 |
| **CLASS VII.—*Canes, &c.*** | | | | |
| Canes or walking-sticks, of all kinds, | per 1,000 pieces | 0 | 5 | 0 |
| **CLASS VIII.—*Articles of Clothing.*** | | | | |
| Wearing apparel, whether of cotton, woollen, or silk, (formerly divided into cotton clothing, woollen do., silk and satin do., and velvet,) | per 100 catties | 0 | 5 | 0 |
| Boots and shoes, whether of satin, leather, or otherwise, | | 0 | 2 | 0 |
| **CLASS IX.—*Fabrics of Hemp, &c.*** | | | | |
| Grass-cloth, and all cloths of hemp or linen, | per 100 catties | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| Nankeen, and all cloths of cotton, (formerly not in the tariff,) | | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| **CLASS X.—*Silk, Fabrics of Silk, &c.*** | | | | |
| Raw silk of any province, | per 100 catties | 10 | 0 | 0 |
| Coarse or refuse silk, | | 2 | 0 | 0 |
| Organzine, of all kinds, | | 10 | 0 | 0 |
| Silk riband and thread, | | 10 | 0 | 0 |
| Silk and satin fabrics of all kinds, as crape, lutestrings, &c., (formerly classed as silk and satins,) | | 12 | 0 | 0 |
| Silk and cotton mixed fabrics, | | 3 | 0 | 0 |
| Heretofore a further charge per piece has been levied—the whole duty is now to be paid in one sum, and the further charge is abolished. | | | | |
| **CLASS XI.—*Carpeting, Matting, &c.*** | | | | |
| Mats of all kinds, as of straw, rattan, bamboo, &c., | per 100 catties | 0 | 2 | 0 |
| **CLASS XII.—*Preserves, &c.*** | | | | |
| Preserved ginger, and fruits of all kinds, | per 100 catties | 0 | 5 | 0 |
| Soy, | | 0 | 4 | 0 |
| Sugar, white and brown, | | 0 | 2 | 5 |
| Sugar candy, all kinds, | | 0 | 3 | 5 |
| Tobacco, prepared and unprepared, &c., of all kinds, | | 0 | 2 | 0 |

CHINESE TARIFF OF IMPORTS AND EXPORTS—Continued.

| Articles of merchandise. | Taels. | Mace. | Cand. |
|---|---|---|---|
| **CLASS XIII.—*Unenumerated articles.*** | | | |
| All articles which it has not been practicable to enumerate herein specifically, are to be charged a duty of 5 per cent ad valorem. | | | |
| **CLASS XIV.** | | | |
| Gold and silver coin, and gold and silver,..... | Du. free. | | |
| **CLASS XV.** | | | |
| Bricks, tiles, and building materials,..... | Du. free. | | |
| **IMPORTS.** | | | |
| **CLASS I.—*Wax, Saltpetre, &c.*** | | | |
| Wax, foreign, as beeswax, also called tile-wax,.....per 100 catties | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| Oil of rose mallows,..... | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| Saltpetre, foreign,..... | 0 | 3 | 0 |
| This article is only allowed to be sold to the government merchants. Formerly this regulation did not exist. | | | |
| Soap, foreign, as perfumed soap,..... | 0 | 5 | 0 |
| **CLASS II.—*Spices and Perfumes.*** | | | |
| Gum benzoin and oil of benzoin,.....per 100 catties | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| Sandal-wood,..... | 0 | 5 | 0 |
| Pepper, black,..... | 0 | 4 | 0 |
| All other articles of this class, not specifically mentioned herein, to pay a duty of 10 per cent ad valorem. Perfumery, 5 per cent ad valorem. | | | |
| **CLASS III.—*Drugs.*** | | | |
| Assafœtida,.....per 100 catties | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| Camphor, superior quality—i. e., pure, formerly classed as good and inferior,.....per catty | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| Camphor, inferior quality, or refuse, formerly uncleaned camphor,..... | 0 | 5 | 0 |
| Cloves, superior quality, picked,.....per 100 catties | 1 | 5 | 0 |
| Cloves, inferior quality, (mother-cloves,)..... | 0 | 5 | 0 |
| Cow bezoar,.....per catty | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| Cutch,.....per 100 catties | 0 | 3 | 0 |
| Gambier,..... | 0 | 1 | 5 |
| Aneca nut,..... | 0 | 1 | 5 |
| Ginseng, foreign, superior quality, &c.,..... | 38 | 0 | 0 |
| Ginseng, inferior quality, &c.,..... | 3 | 5 | 0 |
| Of every 100 catties of foreign ginseng, of whatever sort, one-fifth part is to be considered as of superior quality, and four-fifths of inferior quality. | | | |
| Gum olibanum,..... | 0 | 5 | 0 |
| Myrrh,..... | 0 | 5 | 0 |
| Mace of flower of nutmeg,..... | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| Quicksilver,..... | 3 | 0 | 0 |
| Nutmegs, first quality,..... | 2 | 0 | 0 |
| Nutmegs, second quality, or coarse,..... | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| Putchuk,..... | 0 | 7 | 5 |
| Rhinoceros horns,..... | 3 | 0 | 0 |
| **CLASS IV.—*Sundries.*** | | | |
| Flints,.....per 100 catties | 0 | 0 | 5 |
| Mother-of-pearl shells,..... | 0 | 2 | 0 |
| **CLASS V.—*Dried meats.*** | | | |
| Birds' nests, first quality, mandarin,.....per 100 catties | 5 | 0 | 0 |
| Birds' nests, second quality, ordinary..... | 2 | 5 | 0 |

CHINESE TARIFF OF IMPORTS AND EXPORTS—Continued.

| Articles of merchandise. | | Taels. | Mace. | Cand. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Birds' nests, third quality, with feathers, | per 100 catties | 0 | 5 | 0 |
| Bicho de mar, first quality, black, | | 0 | 8 | 0 |
| Bicho de mar, second quality, white, | | 0 | 2 | 0 |
| Sharks' fins, first quality, white, | | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| Sharks' fins, second quality, black, | | 0 | 5 | 0 |
| Stock fish, called dried fish, | | 0 | 4 | 0 |
| Fish maws, not formerly in tariff, | | 1 | 5 | 0 |

CLASS VI.—*Painters' stores.*

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Cochineal, | per 100 catties | 5 | 0 | 0 |
| Smalts, | | 4 | 0 | 0 |
| Sapan wood, | | 0 | 1 | 0 |

CLASS VII.—*Woods, Canes, &c.*

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Rattans, | per 100 catties | 0 | 2 | 0 |
| Ebony, | | 0 | 1 | 5 |

All other imported woods, as red wood, satin wood, yellow wood, not specifically enumerated, to pay a duty of 10 per cent ad valorem.

CLASS VIII.—*Clocks, Watches, &c.*

Clocks, watches, telescopes, glass panes and crystal wares of all kinds, writing desks, dressing cases, jewelry of gold and silver, cutlery, swords, etc.

All the foregoing, and any other miscellaneous articles of the same description, 5 per cent ad valorem.

CLASS IX.

Gold and silver bullion, duty free.

CLASS X.

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Cotton, fabrics of cotton, canvass from 75 to 100 chih long, and 1 chih 7 tsun to 2 chih 2 tsun wide, | per piece | 0 | 5 | 0 |
| Cotton, allowing 5 per cent for tare, | per 100 catties | 0 | 4 | 0 |
| Long white cloths, 75 to 100 chih long, and 2 chih 2 tsun to 2 chih 6 tsun wide, formerly divided into superior and inferior fine cotton cloth, | per piece | 0 | 1 | 5 |
| Cambrics and muslins from 50 to 60 chih long, and 2 chih 9 tsun to 3 chih 3 tsun wide, | per piece | 0 | 1 | 5 |
| Cottons, gray or unbleached, domestic, and from 75 to 100 chih long, and 2 chih to 2 chih 9 tsun wide, formerly classed as coarse long cloths, | | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| Twilled cottons, gray, same dimensions, | | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| Chintz, and prints of all kinds, from 60 to 70 chih long, and from 2 chih to 9 tsun, to 3 chih 3 tsun wide, formerly called ornamented or flower cloths, | | 0 | 2 | 0 |
| Cotton yarn or cotton thread, | per 100 catties | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| Linen, fine, not formerly in the tariff, from 50 to 75 chih long, and 1 chih 9 tsun to 2 chih 2 tsun wide, | | 0 | 5 | 0 |
| Bunting, | per chang | 0 | 0 | 1½ |

All other imported articles of this class, as ginghams, pulicats, dyed cottons, velveteens, silk and cotton mixtures, and mixtures of linen and cotton, etc., 5 per cent ad valorem.

CLASS XI.—*Fabrics of Silk, Woollen, &c.*

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Handkerchiefs, large, above 2 chih 6 tsun, | each | 0 | 0 | 1½ |
| Handkerchiefs, small, under 2 chih 6 tsun, | | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| Gold and silver thread, superior or real, | per catty | 0 | 1 | 3 |
| " " inferior or imitation, | | 0 | 0 | 3 |
| Broadcloth, Spanish stripe, etc., from 3 chih 6 tsun to 4 chih 6 tsun wide, per chang, | | 0 | 1 | 5 |
| Narrow cloths, as long ells, cassimeres, etc., formerly classed as narrow woollens, | per chang | 0 | 0 | 7 |
| Camlets, (Dutch,) | | 0 | 1 | 5 |
| Camlets, | | 0 | 0 | 7 |
| Imitation camlets or bombazettes, | | 0 | 0 | 3½ |

CHINESE TARIFF OF IMPORTS AND EXPORTS—Continued.

| Articles of merchandise. | | Taels. | Mace. | Cand. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Woollen yarn, | per 100 catties | 3 | 0 | 0 |
| Blankets, | each | 0 | 1 | 0 |

All other fabrics of wool, or of mixed wool and cotton, wool and silk, etc., 5 per cent ad valorem.

CLASS XII.—*Wines, &c.*

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Wine and beer in quart bottles, | per 100 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| Wine in pint bottles, | | 0 | 5 | 0 |
| Wine in casks, | per 100 catties | 1 | 5 | 0 |

CLASS XIII.—*Metals.*

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Copper, foreign, in pigs, etc. | per 100 catties | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| Copper wrought, as sheets, rods, etc. | | 1 | 5 | 0 |
| Iron, foreign, unmanufactured, | | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| Iron, as in pigs, iron manufactured, as in bars, rods, etc. | | 0 | 1 | 5 |
| Lead, foreign, as in pigs, or manufactured, | | 0 | 2 | 8 |
| Steel, foreign, of every kind, | | 0 | 4 | 0 |
| Tin, foreign, | | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| Tin plates, formerly not in the tariff, | | 0 | 4 | 0 |

Spelter is only permitted to be sold to government merchants.
All unenumerated metals, as zinc, yellow copper, etc., 10 per cent ad valorem.

CLASS XIV.—*Jewelry.*

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Cornelians, | per 100 stones | 0 | 5 | 0 |
| Cornelian beads, | per 100 catties | 1 | 0 | 0 |

CLASS XV.—*Skins, Teeth, Horns, &c.*

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Bullocks' and buffalo horns, | per 100 catties | 2 | 0 | 0 |
| Cow and ox hides, tanned and untanned, | | 0 | 5 | 0 |
| Sea otter skins, | each | 1 | 5 | 0 |
| Fox skins, large, | | 0 | 1 | 5 |
| Fox skins, small, | | 0 | 0 | 7½ |
| Tiger, leopard, and marten skins, | | 0 | 1 | 5 |
| Land otter, raccoon, and sharks' skins, | per 100 | 2 | 0 | 0 |
| Beaver skins, | | 5 | 0 | 0 |
| Hare, rabbit, and ermine skins, | | 0 | 5 | 0 |
| Sea-horse teeth, | per 100 catties | 2 | 0 | 0 |
| Elephants' teeth, first quality, whole, | | 4 | 0 | 0 |
| Elephants' teeth, second quality, broken, | | 2 | 0 | 0 |

CLASS XVI.—*Unenumerated.*

All new goods, which it has not been practicable to enumerate herein, a duty of 5 per cent ad valorem.

CLASS XVII.

Rice and other grains, duty free.
Contraband—Opium.

Shipping dues—These have hitherto been charged on the measurement of the ship's length and breadth, at so much per chang; but it is now agreed to alter the system, and charge according to the registered statement of the number of tons of the ship's burden. On each ton, (reckoned equal to the cubic contents of 122 tows,) a shipping charge of 5 mace is to be levied, and all the old charges of measurement, entrance and port clearance fees, daily and monthly fees, etc., are abolished.

C. CUSHING. TSIYENG.*

* Manchu characters used.

## BRAZILIAN CONSULATE FEES,

OR EMOLUMENTS TO BE PAID BY VESSELS, BOTH NATIONAL AND FOREIGN.

In this Department of State for Foreign Affairs, there is to be found registered in Book I. of Register of Decrees, page two hundred and seventy, what the supplicants mention, establishing a new tariff of Consular emoluments, viz.:

The Regent in name of the Emperor, in revoking the Tariff of Consular emoluments ordered to be observed by Decree of 9th of September last year, has determined that the following shall be put into execution, signed by Antonio Peregrino Maciel Monteiro, Minister and Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, who will so understand and have executed with the necessary despatches.

Palace of Rio de Janeiro, 12th of March, 1838—17 of Independence and of the Empire.

*Pedro d'Araujo Lima—Antonio Peregrino Maciel Monteiro.*

TARIFF OF FEES WHICH VESSELS AND PERSONS, BOTH NATIONAL AND FOREIGNERS, SHOULD PAY AT BRAZILIAN CONSULATES.

| Certificate or Legalization. (Duplicate.) | Span. dols. |
|---|---|
| Manifest of a cargo of a vessel of 150 tons | 6 |
| " " from 151 *a* 200 tons | 8 |
| " " 201 *a* 250 " | 10 |
| " " 251 *a* 300 " | 12 |
| " " 301 *a* 350 " | 14 |
| " " 350 tons upwards | 16 |
| Bill of Health | 3 |
| Signature on Bill of Health | 1½ |
| Roll of Equipage | 1½ |
| Inventory of a Vessel | 8 |
| Survey on a Vessel | 8 |
| " of goods on board | 8 |
| " " shore | 5 |
| A Passport | 2½ |
| Signature on Passport | 1 |
| Acknowledgment of signatures or legalization of any document passed by the Consulate | 1 |
| Acknowledgment of signatures or legalization of any document not passed by the Consulate | 1½ |
| Any Certificate | 2 |
| Exceeding two pages, for each one | 1 |
| A Will | 5 |
| Approbation of same | 4 |
| Term of opening of same | 4 |
| Inventory of Estate (for death) | 5 |
| A Procuration | 2 |
| Registering any document in the books of the Consulate, per page | ½ |
| Bill of sale, purchase or deed of partnership | 3 |
| A Protest or Declaration | 2 |
| Interrogatory of witnesses, for each one interrogated | 2 |
| A Certificate of the Consul to serve in any station | 1 |
| Translation of any document, per page | 2 |
| For the presence of the Consul to acts which require his absence from the Consulate, for each day and every three miles' distance, besides expenses | 2½ |
| For money received or paid for account of government, a commission of | 1 p. ct. |
| " " " " private persons | 2½ p. ct. |
| For deposit of money or goods in the Consulate and administration of goods of Brazilian subjects who die intestate, on the amount or value, a commission of | 2½ p. ct. |
| For being present at a sale, if requested | 2 p. ct. |
| For gathering objects belonging to cargo or hull of a wrecked vessel, | 2½ p. ct. |

CONSULAR FEES ON BRAZILIAN VESSELS.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| For a Vessel of | 150 tons | $15 |
| " | 151 to 200 tons | 17½ |
| " | 201 to 250 " | 20 |
| " | 251 to 300 " | 22½ |
| " | 301 to 350 " | 25 |
| " | 350 tons upwards | 30 |

In these Consular fees on Brazilian vessels the expense of certifying the Manifest of cargo is included; and to poor sailors and Brazilian subjects will be given, gratis, all documents they may require.

*Palace of Rio de Janeiro, March* 12, 1838.

(Signed) ANTONIO PEREGRINO MACIEL MONTEIRO.

Nothing else was contained in said Register book, nor in any other is it known that the (referred to) table of emoluments which ought to be paid at Brazilian Consulates, both by vessels and subjects, whether national or foreigners, has been altered, which I declare in this, and pass in compliance with the above despatch.

*Department of State for Foreign Affairs, September* 3, 1845.

(Signed) JOZE DOMINGOS DE A. MONCARVO.

## COMPEND OF THE TARIFF OF CUBA.

We give, below, a compend of the tariff of Cuba, as it affects American produce, imported in American vessels, which is to take effect on the 1st of March, 1846. On the same day, the tonnage duty will be re-imposed upon vessels loading with molasses. In calculating the duty on imports, 1 per cent on the amount of duty must be added, called the *balanza*.

A COMPEND OF THE TARIFF OF CUBA, TO TAKE EFFECT 1ST OF MARCH, 1846.

| Articles. | Valuation. | Duty. | Articles. | Valuat'n. | Duty. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Ale, cask, ....arroba | $1 50 | 33½ c. | Hay, ....qtl. | 50 | 27½ c. |
| Ale, bottles, ....dozen | 3 00 | 33½ | Herring, ....bxs. of 100 fish | 62 | 33½ |
| Apples, ....bbl. | 3 00 | 27½ | Hogsheads, casks, ....each | $2 00 | 27½ |
| Barrels, empty, ....each | 50 | 27½ | Hoops, ....M. | 30 00 | 27½ |
| Beef, ....bbl. | 9 00 | 33½ | Horses, geldings, ....each | 150 00 | 33½ |
| Beef, jerked, ....arroba | 1 75 | 27½ | Lard, ....qtl. | 12 00 | 33½ |
| Beef, smoked, ....qtl. | 7 00 | 33½ | Mackerel, ....bbl. | 3 00 | 27½ |
| Beans, ....arroba | 75 | 33½ | Nails, copper, ....qtl. | 25 00 | 27½ |
| Beer, cask, ....arroba | 1 50 | 33½ | Nails, iron, ....qtl. | 7 00 | 27½ |
| Beer, bottles, ....doz. | 3 00 | 33½ | Oars, ....100 feet | 6 25 | 27½ |
| Biscuit, box, ....4 lbs. | 75 | 33½ | Oil, sp. and whale, ....qtl. | 10 00 | 27½ |
| Boards, white and yellow pine. ....M. ft. | 20 00 | 27½ | Onions, ....qtl. | 1 50 | 33½ |
| Bricks, ....M. | 12 00 | 32½ | Paper, letter, ....rm. | 2 50 | 33½ |
| Butter, ....qtl. | 14 00 | 27½ | Paper, wrapping, ....rm. | 50 | 33½ |
| Candles, tallow, ....qtl. | 12 00 | 33½ | Pork, ....bbl. | 14 00 | 33½ |
| Candles, sperm, ....qtl. | 32 00 | 27½ | Pork, sides, ....qtl. | 9 00 | 27½ |
| Cheese, American, ....qtl. | 10 00 | 27½ | Potatoes, ....bbl. | 2 50 | 27½ |
| Coal, ....ton | 3 75 | 32½ | Rice, ....qtl. | 6 00 | 33½ |
| Cocoa, Caraccas, ....qtl. | 16 00 | 27½ | Scantling, ....M. feet | 18 00 | 27½ |
| Cocoa, all other, ....qtl. | 6 00 | 27½ | Shingles, ....M. | 3 75 | 27½ |
| Codfish, ....qtl. | 3 50 | 27½ | Shooks, sugar-box, ...each | 75 | 27½ |
| Cordage, tarred, ....qtl. | 12 00 | 33½ | Shooks, hhd, ....each | 1 00 | 27½ |
| Cordage, Manilla, ....qtl. | 7 50 | 33½ | Soap, bar, ....qtl. | 8 00 | 33½ |
| Cotton, ....qtl. | 10 00 | 27½ | Staves, ....M. | 25 00 | 27½ |
| Cider, bottles, ....doz. | 3 00 | 33½ | Tallow, ....qtl. | 7 50 | 27½ |
| Flour, barrel, ..bbl., fix'd duty | 9 59 | | Tar, ....bbl. | 3 00 | 27½ |
| Hams, ....qtl. | 10 00 | 33½ | Tongues, smoked, ....qtl. | 7 00 | 27½ |

EXPORT DUTIES.

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Coffee, ....qtl. | | 20 | Sugar, ....box | | 37 |
| Rum, ....pipes | | Free. | Segars, ....M. | | 50 |
| Molasses, ....hhds. | | Free. | Tobacco, ....qtl. | $1 | 50 |
| Honey, ....hhd. | $1 | 37 | | | |

A gentleman at Havana, under date December 6th, 1845, thus speaks of this tariff:—"It in effect differs very little from the old tariff, being only a simplification of the method of calculating the duties; which, under repeated impositions and reductions, had become quite complicated. Many of the best friends of the country had anticipated a reduction in the duties on articles of consumption, which are exceedingly onerous, and are fast grinding the poor to pauperism, from the tendency of the present system of collection of revenue to the accumulation of wealth in the hands of the few."

# NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

## PORT ADELAIDE, SOUTH AUSTRALIA.

H. C. Stackerman has addressed a circular to ports interested in the South Sea whale fishery, dated Adelaide, South Australia, April 15, 1845, in which he refers to the advantages it presents to whalers, in consequence of its rapid rise, since its foundation in 1837.

Port Adelaide is situated in St. Vincent's Gulf, the entrance to which is 33. 48. S. L., and 138. 36. E. G. The passage through Investigators' Straits, and through the gulf, is perfectly safe and easy, keeping clear of the S. E. point of York's Peninsula, where there is a sand bank.

Vessels drawing 18 feet may safely get into the harbor, which offers the security of any dock.

At the mouth of the gulf, is Kangaroo Island, where, during the season, several small coasters are on the look-out for whalers, for the purpoee of boarding them, and selling them at high prices, provisions and other articles, which they have bought in Adelaide. To obtain this object, and in order to induce the captain not to enter the port, but to buy from them, they will give false reports on the state of the market.

We give below, the particulars of the port charges at Port Adelaide, such as they are at present; "but the general impression is, that very shortly a considerable reduction will take place, and additional inducements thereby be offered to whalers to call here—a more favorable port than which, according to the opinion of several American and European continental captains of whalers, who have had occasion to touch here, will not exist in these quarters for taking in new stock, etc., and for touching in case of any accident."

In payment of stores, or provisions supplied, oil can be landed for consumption in the colony, subject to 107 ad valorem duty, which is also the rate on all other foreign articles, excepting spirits, subject to 12*s.* a gallon, and tobacco, to 2*s.* per pound; this article is always sold in bond, by the importer, the buyer paying the duty.

Port Charges—Custom-house entrance and clearance, £2 2*s.*; pilotage, payable inwards and outwards, drawing 9 a 10 feet, £4; 10 a 11 feet, £4 10*s.*, rising 10*s.* per additional foot.

Harbor Dues—A vessel to 300 a 400 tons, £2; 400 a 500 tons, £2 10*s.*; exceeding 500 tons, £3; tonnage dues, 6*s.* a ton.

Prices Current—Beef, 2¼*d.* a 2½*d.* per lb.; pork, 2½*d.* a 3*d.*; mutton, 2*d.* a 2½*d.* per lb.; wethers, 12*s.* a 13*s.* each; pigs, 15*s.* a 20*s.* each; flour, first quality, at 9*s.* per 100 lb.; second do., 6*s.* 6*d.* a 7*s.* 6*d.*; biscuit, 13*s.* a 15*s.* per cwt.; butter, 6*d.* a 8*d.* per lb.; cheese, 5*d.* a 5½*d.* per lb.; bacon, 5*d.* a 5½*d.* per lb.; potatoes, £3 a £5 per ton, according to season. Vegetables abundant and cheap during the season; fruits, do. do.; tea, coffee, sugar, rice, at about the European prices.

## SUNKEN ROCK—CHINCHA OR GUANO ISLANDS.

Masters of vessels proceeding from the port Pisco to the Chincha or Guano islands, should give the N. E. point a good berth, until the centre of the island bears south, and then haul into their moorings abreast of the loading shoots, there being a sunken rock about half a cable's length off the N. E. point of the island, not laid down in any chart.

## RIO GRANDE ST. PEDRO.

The following notice, dated Rio Grande, March 30th, 1845, has been published over the signatures of Russel Snow, brig Sylph; Bennett Morgan, brig Osceola; Thomas M. Mayhew, barque Brothers; and Azariah Done, barque Bevis:

"It is usual to charter vessels for the Rio Grande St. Pedro. We consider the whole of this place Rio Grande St. Pedro, and it is generally considered so in the United States; and on all the books and charts of the coast, the St. Pedro is to distinguish this place from the Rio Grande north of Pernambuco. The merchants here say, that only Rio Grande South, as it is usually called, is Rio Grande St. Pedro; and though vessels arrive at Rio Grande North, and enter at the custom-house, and are ready to discharge, they will not allow that they are at Rio Grande, and refuse to allow the days while laying there. Vessels can very seldom go to the South, or Rio Grande St. Pedro, as they call it, drawing more than nine feet of water, and vessels drawing more than that are obliged to go to the North and discharge part of their cargo, which causes much trouble and detention.

So that American vessels, drawing more than nine feet, should never charter for Rio Grande, without having it expressed in their charter-party, that their lay days begin upon entry at St. Josephs, or Rio Grande North, and when lightened sufficiently to proceed to the South, if the consignee wishes."

## COMMERCIAL DECREE OF THE GOVERNMENT OF CUBA.

It was officially announced at Havana, November 12, 1845, that the port of Sagua la Grande would be open on the first of January, 1846, under the following restrictions:

I. Spanish vessels registered in Spain will be permitted to enter the port of Sagua la Grande to discharge, and to load produce under the present restrictions.

II. Also, vessels of other nations in ballast, to load sugar and other productions.

III. Also, Spanish and foreign vessels from foreign ports, with the following articles, viz: joists, boards, planks, staves, wooden hoops, empty hogsheads, and hogshead shooks, do. barrels and barrel shooks, shingles, box shooks, sugar mould and zinc and tin plate for do., hemquen bags and linen do., hemquen rope, salt beef and pork, salt from the island, codfish, fish and mackerel, iron nails, steam engines for sugar estates, loose extra pieces for do., sugar-mill rollers, sugar boilers, and tanks and bricks.

IV. Vessels having on board any articles not specified in the above list, will have to discharge those articles in some qualified port before they can enter the above mentioned port.

## VICTORIA ROCK OFF ANGLESEA.

Trinity House, London, 24th Oct., 1845.—This corporation has caused a buoy, colored red and white, in horizontal stripes, and marked "Victoria," to be placed about fifty fathoms to the northward of the rock, upon the gravel bank off the north coast of Anglesea, upon which the Victoria steam vessel recently struck. This buoy lies in two fathoms at low water spring tides, and with the following marks and compass bearings, viz: Cemaes Mill ¼ point open east of the beacon on Harry's Furlong, S.E. ¼ S. Kemlyn Mill touching the eastern end of Kemlyn Farm, S. High water of Henborth Point, in line with Pengarn Beacon.

## VARIATION OF THE NEEDLE.

The following is a corrected report of the variation and dip of the needle at Bermuda, taken with great care by Captain Barnette, of H. M. surveying vessel Thunder. In old charts but two degrees of variation are given, whereas from the present observation it appears that there are 7 degrees 1 minute west, and which is very likely to be the reason why so many ships pass the islands without seeing them, and others run on the reefs in the neighborhood. Variations of the needle at Bermuda, in October, 1845, 7 degrees 1 minute W.; dip of the needle, 65 degrees 26 minutes 15 seconds west.

# .COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

## COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION OF THE UNITED STATES.*

A CORRESPONDENT of the New York "Evening Gazette," at Washington, is furnishing several abstract statements of the treasury report, which will doubtless answer an excellent purpose for immediate reference; but we prefer, as usual, to wait the appearance of the official document, as it is important that such statements in a standard work, which we profess to publish, should compare with the official documents. Besides, it has been our custom to present a full and comprehensive statement of the whole report, occupying about sixteen pages, in a single number of the Merchants' Magazine.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF THE UNITED STATES DURING THE YEAR ENDING 30TH JUNE, 1845, COMPARED WITH THOSE OF THE PREVIOUS YEAR.

*Imports.*

| | 1844. | 1845. |
|---|---|---|
| Specie and bullion, | $5,330,429 | $4,070,242 |
| Merchandise free of duty, | 18,936,452 | 18,077,598 |
| " paying ad valorem duties, | 52,315,291 | 60,191,862 |
| " paying specific duties, | 31,352,863 | 34,914,862 |
| Total imports, | $107,985,035 | $117,254,564 |

*Exports.*

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Foreign goods, free of duty, (exclusive of specie,) | $2,251,550 | $2,413,050 |
| " paying ad val. dut., " | 1,706,206 | 2,107,292 |
| " paying specific duties, " | 2,256,302 | 3,064,439 |
| Foreign gold and silver coin, | 5,270,809 | 7,762,049 |
| Total foreign articles re-exported, | $11,484,867 | $15,346,830 |
| American gold and silver coin, | 183,405 | 844,446 |
| Domestic produce, | 99,531,774 | 98,455,330 |
| Total exports, | $111,200,046 | $114,646,606 |
| Total of imports and exports, | 219,635,081 | 231,901,170 |

The proportion of the above imports and exports which were carried in American and Foreign vessels, is as follows:—

| | In American vessels. | | In Foreign vessels. | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1844. | 1845. | 1844. | 1845. |
| Foreign goods imported, | $94,174,673 | $102,438,481 | $14,260,362 | $14,816,083 |
| " re-exported, | 8,744,154 | 11,459,319 | 2,740,713 | 3,887,511 |
| Domestic produce exported, | 69,706,375 | 75,483,123 | 30,008,804 | 23,816,653 |
| Total, | $172,625,202 | $189,380,923 | $47,009,879 | $42,520,247 |

* This summary view of the commerce and navigation of the United States, for 1845, was compiled at Washington, from the manuscript official report of the Secretary of the Treasury, by a correspondent of the New York "Evening Gazette," "Charleston Mercury," and "Constitution," and published in those Journals. The official report has not been printed, and will not probably be for some months to come, unless the present Secretary of the Treasury, or the printers to Congress, are more expeditious than their predecessors. We are induced, however, to hope, from the fact that the document was promptly laid before Congress at its opening, (an unusual circumstance,) that measures have been taken for its more timely publication. We have alluded to the importance of this subject in previous years, and urged the importance of greater expedition in the matter, citing the promptness manifested in England and France, in causing their statistical and commercial documents to be published at an early day after they were completed. We cannot vouch for the accuracy of these statements, although we have every reason to believe that the abstract was made with care, and that they will be found generally correct, when compared with the official document.—[ED. MER. MAG.]

The number and tonnage of vessels, with their crews, entering and clearing from the United States, is as follows:—

| | American. | | Foreign. | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1844. | 1845. | 1844. | 1845. |
| Number of vessels entering, | 8,148 | 8,133 | 5,557 | 5,590 |
| " clearing, | 8,343 | 8,197 | 5,500 | 5,583 |
| Tonnage entering, | 1,977,438 | 2,035,486 | 916,992 | 910,563 |
| " clearing, | 2,010,924 | 2,053,977 | 906,814 | 930,275 |
| Crews—Men entering, | 97,459 | 99,020 | 55,948 | 55,315 |
| Men clearing, | 99,300 | 100,794 | 55,075 | 54,657 |
| Boys entering, | 3,421 | 2,562 | 1,004 | 700 |
| Boys clearing, | 3,108 | 2,462 | 964 | 720 |

The following is a statement of the tonnage owned in the United States, in tons and 95ths:—

| | 1844. | | 1845. | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Permanent. | Temporary. | Permanent. | Temporary. |
| Registered, | 859,008.30 | 209,757.61 | 882 538.48 | 212,633.91 |
| Enrolled licensed, | 1,171,437.53 | 2,099.80 | 1,264,060.44 | 18,283.62 |
| Licensed under 20 tons, | 30,746.77 | 7,045.86 | 32,330.45 | 7,165.01 |
| Total, | 2,061,192.65 | 218,902.47 | 2,178,929.42 | 238,082.59 |

| | 1844. | 1845. |
|---|---|---|
| Total permanent and temporary, | 2,280,095.07 | 2,417,002.06 |
| The registered and enrolled in the whale fishery, | 168,293.63 | 190,695.65 |
| The registered steamboat tonnage, | 6,909.42 | 6,491.51 |
| The proportion of the enrolled and licensed— | | |
| Tonnage employed in the coast trade, | 1,078,867.62 | 1,190,898.27 |
| In the cod fishery, | 78,178.86 | 69,825.66 |
| In the mackerel fishery, | 16,170.66 | 21,413.05 |
| In the whale fishery, | 320.14 | ..... |
| Total, | 1,173,537.38 | 1,282,344.11 |
| The proportion of that in the coasting trade employed in steam navigation, | 265,269.86 | 319,527.07 |
| The number of vessels built, | 766 | 1,038 |
| Their tonnage, | 103,537.29 | 146,018.02 |

## COMMERCE OF THE PENNSYLVANIA CANAL.

We have compiled from an official statement published in the Pittsburgh Gazette, the movement of trade, east and west, for the years ending November 3, 1844 and 1845. In reviewing the flow of trade upon this great artery of the State of Pennsylvania, it is not, in the opinion of the editors of the Gazette, to be concealed that these tables afford grounds for serious alarm.

Heretofore the main line of Pennsylvania has been regarded as the shortest and cheapest route between the northern seaboard and the valley of the Ohio; especially has this been the case in the eastern part of the state, and Philadelphia has thought herself secure in the possession of its lucrative trade, so long as no parallel rival route offered easier means of transitu between the West and the East. According to the tonnage there is an increase of the trade moving eastward of 13,000,000 lbs. An inspection of the table will show that there has been a falling off in all the leading western staples, with the exception of beef and pork, (the amount of which is insignificant,) feathers, wool, leaf tobacco, whiskey, and ashes.

We quote the comments of the Gazette in reference to the decline of trade on the Pennsylvania Main Line of State Works.

"Respecting the movement westward, the enormous decrease on the item of dry goods, is an argument no one can answer. Even in the items which show an increase, no one can pretend that they keep pace with the annual increase of consumption in the valley of the Ohio. Where then are we to look for an explanation? Nothing could be more easily found. The cause is the diversion made by the Erie Canal, and the Erie Extension and Miami Canals. Is it not a notorious and undeniable fact, that Philadelphia merchants, to preserve their customers, were obliged to pay the freight on their purchases to New York, that they might be forwarded *via* the routes mentioned? Had the arguments urged upon the Canal Commissioners by the Boards of Trade in this city and Philadelphia, been listened to, and their advice acted upon, there would have been nothing of all this.

"We might go into particulars, and we could point out districts where thousands of tons of Western produce could have been drawn to this route had a common sense policy been pursued. We could name one where 30,000 bbls. of flour lay for a choice of routes, and finally went south; another where thousands of bbls. of pork, beef, lard, &c., waited for a decision in the charges here, and then followed the flour, &c. It is not necessary. If this year's business on the Canal at Pittsburgh is not evidence enough, we despair of ever having any sufficiently potent to enforce conviction upon the subject. It is sheer folly to suppose from the operations on the new routes from the Lake to the Ohio, the past season, that they cannot do better. The business of 1846 will for ever silence this plea for high tolls upon the Main Line of Pennsylvania. Let the policy of New York be followed. Early in 1845 her talented and sharp-sighted Commissioners published a very low scale of tolls on the Erie Canal, to govern the operations of the coming year. Happily for Pittsburgh, her commercial and manufacturing interests now depend in but a limited degree upon the canal."

MOVEMENT OF TRADE EASTWARD ON THE PENNSYLVANIA CANAL, FROM PITTSBURGH, FOR THE YEARS 1844 AND 1845.

| | 1844. | 1845. | Increase. | Decrease. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Flour,.....bbls. | 100,454 | 82,092 | ..... | 18,352 |
| Seeds,.....bush. | | 3,152 | 3,152 | ..... |
| Beef and Pork,.....bbls. | 363 | 4,575 | 4,212 | ..... |
| Bacon,.....lbs. | 19,105,805 | 15,155,344 | ..... | 3,950,461 |
| Cheese and Butter,.....lbs. | 1,645,472 | 1,126,750 | ..... | 518,722 |
| Tallow,.....lbs. | | 422,583 | ..... | ..... |
| Lard,.....lbs. | | 2,236,703 | ..... | ..... |
| Feathers,.....lbs. | 584,279 | 773,908 | 189,629 | ..... |
| Wool,.....lbs. | 3,166,969 | 3,763,570 | 596,601 | ..... |
| Cotton,.....lbs. | 1,125,746 | 965,041 | ..... | 160,705 |
| Hemp,.....lbs. | 881,961 | 865,444 | ..... | 16,517 |
| Tobacco,.....lbs. | 17,303,415 | 24,015,613 | 6,712,198 | ..... |
| Leather,.....lbs. | 69,791 | 104,383 | 34,592 | ..... |
| Hides,.....lbs. | 492,684 | 117,571 | ..... | 375,113 |
| Furs,.....lbs. | 103,007 | 91,066 | ..... | 11,941 |
| Groceries,.....lbs. | 1,379,780 | 1,063,472 | ..... | 316,308 |
| Merchandise,.....lbs | 324,318 | 224,135 | ..... | 100,183 |
| Drugs,.....lbs. | 80,634 | 16,004 | ..... | 64,630 |
| Rags,.....lbs. | 669,742 | 417,537 | ..... | 252,205 |
| Iron and Nails,.....lbs. | 500,400 | 449,304 | ..... | 51,096 |
| Hardware,.....lbs. | 159,171 | 121,701 | ..... | 37,470 |
| Agricultural Produce,..lbs. | 869,374 | 77,198 | ..... | 792,174 |
| Whiskey,.....gals. | 77,591 | 112,841 | 35,250 | ..... |
| Pigs and Castings,....lbs. | 2,646,167 | 3,956,728 | 1,310,561 | ..... |
| Coffee,.....lbs. | 90,722 | 54,879 | ..... | 35,843 |
| Window Glass,.....bxs. | 3,099½ | 3,794½ | 695 | ..... |
| Ashes,.....lbs. | 277,220 | 772,269 | 495,049 | ..... |
| Lard Oil,.....gals. | 38,319 | 31,551 | ..... | 6,768 |
| Bones, &c.....lbs. | | 161,755 | ..... | ..... |
| Furniture,.....lbs. | 250,744 | 290,936 | 40,192 | ..... |
| Sundries,.....lbs. | 1,597,539 | 1,007,366 | 409,827 | ..... |
| Coal,.....tons. | 350 | 2,311 | 1,961 | ..... |

MOVEMENT OF TRADE WESTWARD ON THE PENNSYLVANIA CANAL, TO PITTSBURGH, FOR THE YEARS ENDING NOVEMBER 30, 1844 AND 1845.

| | 1844. | 1845. | Increase. | Decrease. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Dry Goods,.....lbs. | 24,133,173 | 17,792,055 | ..... | 6,341,118 |
| Hardware,.....lbs. | 8,417,359 | 10,581,399 | 2,164,040 | ..... |
| China Ware,.....lbs. | 4,565,005 | 4,625,248 | 60,243 | ..... |
| Muslin,.....lbs. | 5,625,146 | 5,381,639 | ..... | 243,507 |
| Groceries,.....lbs. | 5,108,266 | 5,118,460 | 10,194 | ..... |
| Drugs,.....lbs. | 1,721,778 | 848,745 | ..... | 873,033 |
| Coffee,.....lbs. | 9,092,807 | 9,532,271 | 439,464 | ..... |
| Tobacco, manufact'd,.lbs. | 763,465 | 1,222,750 | 459,288 | ..... |
| Liquors, foreign,.....gals. | 37,337 | 28,786 | ..... | 8,551 |
| Leather,.....lbs. | 415,775 | 478,926 | 63,151 | ..... |
| Hemp,.....lbs. | 388,669 | 244,372 | ..... | 144,297 |
| Blooms,.....lbs. | 18,824,166 | 15,332,782 | ..... | 3,491,384 |
| Pig Metal,.....lbs. | 5,094,722 | 7,374,738 | 2,280,016 | ..... |
| Paints,.....lbs. | ..... | 525,502 | ..... | ..... |
| Tin,.....lbs. | ..... | 1,014,066 | ..... | ..... |
| Glass Ware,.....lbs. | 57,988 | 95,598 | 37,610 | ..... |
| Salt,.....bush. | 206,475 | 190,265 | ..... | 16,210 |
| Fish,.....bbls. | 8,506 | 17,240 | 8,734 | ..... |
| Oils,.....gals. | 33,610 | 42,014 | 8,404 | ..... |
| Tar and Rosin,.....lbs. | 240,286 | 451,645 | 211,359 | ..... |
| Marble,.....lbs. | 391,410 | 374,642 | ..... | 16,768 |
| Iron and Nails,.....lbs. | 3,583,235 | 5,378,794 | 1,795,559 | ..... |
| Clay,.....lbs. | ..... | 1,084,709 | ..... | ..... |
| Copper,.....lbs. | ..... | 251,687 | ..... | ..... |

The Tables exhibit the movement of the leading articles. We append the aggregates of some minor items:—

EXPORTS FROM PITTSBURGH IN 1845.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Oil Cake,.....lbs. | 46,630 | White Lead in Oil,.....lbs. | 60,159 |
| Deer and Buff. Skins,..... | 641,477 | Cordage,..... | 72,777 |
| Earthenware,..... | 20,967 | Not enumerated,..... | 625,057 |
| Paper,..... | 26,342 | | |

IMPORTS AT PITTSBURGH IN 1845.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Barley,.....bush. | 1,872 | Cordage,..... | 25,771 |
| Rye,..... | 2,971 | Not enumerated,.....lbs. | 708,649 |
| Bran,..... | 2,828 | Anvils,..... | 302,843 |
| Corn,..... | 945 | Coal,.....tons. | 35½ |
| Oats,..... | 24,137 | Cinders,.....lbs. | 5,130 |
| Potatoes,..... | 2,826 | Spanish Whiting,..... | 485,006 |
| Wheat,..... | 1,267 | Steel,..... | 13,369 |
| Hay,.....tons. | 189½ | Cheese,..... | 11,918 |
| Seeds,.....bush. | 748 | Oysters,..... | 90,882 |
| Mahogany,.....lbs. | 16,092 | Brick,.....M. | 1,230 |
| Posts and Rails,.....No. | 4,789 | French Burrs,.....lbs. | 140,487 |
| Staves,..... | 139,090 | Mill Stones,..... | 38,660 |
| Boards,.....ft. | 612,932 | Roofing Slate,..... | 254,800 |
| Alum,.....lbs. | 16,537 | Stone,.....perch. | 1,374 |
| Copperas,..... | 45,131 | Paper,.....lbs. | 207,391 |
| White Lead,..... | 6,128 | Rags,..... | 7,167 |
| Earthenware,..... | 22,987 | | |

The items of grain, and produce generally, show how little is received at Pittsburgh from the country lying along the canal. In fact there is very little that enters into consumption contributed by it, except blooms, pig metal, salt, and a few other articles.

The tolls of the Pennsylvania Canal for the fiscal year, 1845, amounted to a total of $98,270 43.

NUMBER OF BOATS CLEARED AND MILES TRAVELED BY PASSENGERS.

| | Boats. | | Miles Traveled. | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1844. | 1845. | 1844. | 1845. |
| December | 30 | 53 | ..... | 24,605 |
| March | 234 | 232 | 54,015 | 9,360 |
| April | 478 | 426 | 213,621 | 67,258 |
| May | 398 | 401 | 183,740 | 216,915 |
| June | 328 | 309 | 158,263 | 203,668 |
| July | 298 | 318 | 123,198 | 134,544 |
| August | 318 | 323 | 105,564 | 137,815 |
| September | 306 | 372 | 136,794 | 122,756 |
| October | 361 | 386 | 139,772 | 181,327 |
| November | 266 | 317 | 61,428 | 267,487 |
| | 3,007 | 3,167 | 1,176,395 | 1,365,735 |
| | Increase 160. | | Decrease 189,340. | |

The periods at which the Canal opened for a series of years, were as follows:—

| | |
|---|---|
| 1838,.....March 27th. | 1842,.....March 7th. |
| 1839,..... " 26th. | 1843,.....May 7th. |
| 1840,..... " 16th. | 1844,.....March 14th. |
| 1841,..... " 27th. | 1845,..... " 10th. |

## COMMERCE OF THE NEW YORK CANALS.

The following table, compiled from the records of the Canal Department, comprises the whole movement, on the canals of the state, on all property arriving at and clearing from tide-water, during the years 1844 and 1845. The annual report of the Canal Commissioners, embracing a full account of the trade and tonnage of the canals of New York, for 1845, will soon be published; when we shall prepare and lay before the readers of this Magazine our usual annual digest of all those statements that render it valuable for preservation for reference with the movements of future years.

STATEMENT OF ALL THE PROPERTY WHICH CAME TO THE HUDSON RIVER ON THE CANALS, IN 1844 AND 1845, WITH THE QUANTITY AND ESTIMATED VALUE OF EACH ARTICLE, IN ALBANY AND TROY.

*Agriculture.*

| | 1844. | | 1845. | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Articles. | Quantity. | Value. | Quantity. | Value. |
| Pork,.....bbls. | 63,646 | $572,814 | 45,153 | $571,637 |
| Beef,..... | 50,000 | 250,000 | 67,699 | 507,743 |
| Bacon,.....lbs. | ..... | ..... | 1,631,700 | 118,299 |
| Cheese,..... | 26,674,500 | 1,333,725 | 27,542,861 | 1,921,000 |
| Butter and lard,..... | 22,596,300 | 2,716,909 | 21,825,455 | 3,055,564 |
| Lard,..... | ..... | ..... | 3,064,800 | 245,184 |
| Wool,..... | 7,672,300 | 2,915,474 | 9,504,039 | 2,946,252 |
| Hides,..... | ..... | ..... | 293,009 | 36,627 |
| Flour,.....bbls. | 2,222,204 | 9,999,918 | 2,517,250 | 14,021,081 |
| Wheat,.....bush. | 1,262,249 | 1,211,759 | 1,620,033 | 1,941,869 |
| Rye,..... | 62,239 | 43,506 | 157,438 | 111,002 |
| Corn,..... | 17,861 | 8,931 | 35,803 | 21,479 |
| Barley,..... | 818,472 | 527,410 | 1,137,917 | 671,371 |
| Other grain,..... | 1,166,524 | 396,618 | 1,294,609 | 491,951 |
| Bran and ship-stuff,..... | 1,177,489 | 303,153 | 1,067,665 | 160,150 |
| Peas and beans,..... | 21,176 | 32,464 | 66,175 | 70,145 |
| Potatoes,..... | 18,263 | 6,905 | 145,569 | 58,076 |
| Dried fruit,.....lbs. | 1,299,400 | 103,952 | 360,966 | 32,477 |
| Cotton,..... | 79,600 | 5,971 | 66,800 | 5,177 |
| Tobacco,..... | 318,900 | 35,079 | 670,900 | 80,508 |
| Clover and grass-seed,..... | 4,594,800 | 321,636 | 3,161,200 | 221,284 |
| Flax-seed,..... | 3,114,000 | 62,280 | 8,303,960 | 166,079 |
| Hops,..... | 1,319,700 | 171,561 | 874,200 | 157,356 |
| Total value,..... | | $21,020,065 | | $27,612,291 |

*The Forest.*

| Articles. | 1844. Quantity. | 1844. Value. | 1845. Quantity. | 1845. Value. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Furs and peltry,.....lbs. | 832,200 | $1,040,275 | 708,749 | $873,436 |
| Boards and scantling,.....ft. | 232,434,700 | 4,001,691 | 237,924,666 | 4,044,720 |
| Shingles,.....M. | 78,125 | 234,381 | 72,120 | 234,390 |
| Timber,.....ft. | 921,982 | 160,605 | 2,492,668 | 498,534 |
| Staves,.....lbs. | 97,533,000 | 390,131 | 139,754,800 | 628,898 |
| Wood,.....cords | 16,550 | 114,737 | 17,696 | 86,258 |
| Ashes,.....bbls. | 80,646 | 1,774,212 | 69,668 | 1,393,360 |
| Total value,..... | | $7,716,032 | | $7,759,596 |

*Manufactures.*

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Domestic spirits,.....galls. | 1,194,317 | $298,582 | 1,588,601 | $444,809 |
| Leather,.....lbs. | 3,909,000 | 935,051 | 15,363,925 | 2,765,508 |
| Furniture,..... | 2,177,400 | 217,740 | 2,561,624 | 256,162 |
| Bar and pig lead,..... | 41,800 | 1,672 | 223,500 | 8,940 |
| Pig iron,..... | 6,422,600 | 96,340 | 8,031,218 | 140,546 |
| Iron-ware,..... | 944,900 | 37,796 | 4,665,388 | 186,615 |
| Domestic woollens,..... | 867,200 | 1,170,720 | 1,407,529 | 1,900,029 |
| " cottons,..... | 1,584,600 | 491,126 | 1,879,446 | 582,628 |
| Salt,.....bbls. | 175,013 | 240,643 | 172,968 | 147,023 |
| Total value,..... | | $3,489,670 | | $6,432,259 |
| Merchandise,..... | 492,300 | 86,153 | 505,708 | 88,497 |

*Other Articles.*

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Stone, lime, and clay,.....lbs. | 50,159,800 | $75,239 | 55,344,593 | $83,016 |
| Gypsum,..... | 1,891,800 | 8,398 | 12,263,800 | 27,656 |
| Mineral coal,..... | 18,480,700 | 55,993 | 47,798,300 | 119,496 |
| Sundries,..... | 54,722,400 | 2,188,896 | 83,237,259 | 3,329,490 |
| Total value,..... | | $2,328,526 | | $3,559,658 |

*Aggregates.*

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Forest,.....tons | 545,202 | $7,716,032 | 607,930 | $7,759,596 |
| Agriculture,..... | 383,363 | 21,020,065 | 447,627 | 27,612,291 |
| Manufactures,..... | 39,957 | 3,489,670 | 49,812 | 6,432,259 |
| Merchandise,..... | 246 | 86,153 | 253 | 88,497 |
| Other articles,..... | 62,627 | 2,328,526 | 99,321 | 3,559,658 |
| Total, ..... | 1,031,395 | $34,640,446 | 1,204,943 | $45,452,301 |

STATEMENT OF PROPERTY CLEARED FROM THE HUDSON RIVER, ON ALL THE CANALS, IN 1844 AND 1845, VALUE OF SUCH PROPERTY, TOLLS, AND NUMBER OF BOATS CLEARED.

| | 1844. | 1845. |
|---|---|---|
| Boats cleared,..... | 19,393 | 20,040 |
| Tons,..... | 208,699 | 224,013 |
| Value,..... | $53,142,403 | $55,453,998 |
| Tolls,..... | 682,068 | 727,482 |

STATEMENT OF THE VALUE OF ALL THE PROPERTY WHICH CLEARED FROM AND CAME TO THE HUDSON ON THE CANALS, IN THE YEARS 1844 AND 1845.

| | 1844. | 1845. |
|---|---|---|
| Arrived,..... | $34,640,446 | $45,452,301 |
| Cleared,..... | 53,142,403 | 55,453,998 |
| Total,..... | $87,782,849 | $100,906,298 |
| Excess in 1845 over 1844,..... | | 13,123,449 |

The total value of merchandise and property which cleared from and came to the Hudson river, on the canals of New York, in 1845, was valued at $100,906,298; being but about $17,000,000 less than the whole imports of the United States from foreign countries, in the year 1845.

## STATISTICS OF THE AMERICAN WHALE FISHERY.

We give, below, several tables, derived from the New Bedford Shipping List, of the American Whale Fishery; they exhibit a statement of the imports of sperm and whale oils, and whalebone, into the United States in each month, from Jan. 1st, to the 31st of December, 1845; the imports in each year, from 1838 to 1845; the quantity of oil and whalebone on hand at the principal ports engaged in the business; the average time employed in voyages, and average cargoes of 1845; average prices of the products of the whale fishery; the number and tonnage of vessels employed on the 1st of January, of the year 1844, 1845, and 1846, and the number of vessels belonging to the several ports designated.

IMPORTS OF SPERM AND WHALE OILS, AND WHALEBONE, INTO THE UNITED STATES, FROM JAN. 1, 1845, TO JAN. 1, 1846.

| 1845. | Bbls. Sperm. | Bbls. Whale. | Lbs. Bone. |
|---|---|---|---|
| January, | 4,516 | 13,306 | 118,061 |
| February, | 16,123 | 56,555 | 538,519 |
| March, | 9,738 | 29,192 | 543,675 |
| April, | 19,914 | 56,746 | 686,266 |
| May, | 30,385 | 58,275 | 559,150 |
| June, | 13,181 | 10,852 | 65,000 |
| July, | 16,347 | 20,858 | 208,210 |
| August, | 9,346 | 10,312 | 313,873 |
| September, | 9,244 | 12,052 | 106,469 |
| October, | 9,137 | 2,765 | 22,319 |
| November, | 10,297 | 1,277 | 5,600 |
| December, | 9,689 | 540 | ..... |
| Total, | 157,917 | 272,730 | 3,167,142 |

IMPORTS OF SPERM AND WHALE OIL, FROM JAN. 1, 1838, TO JAN. 1, 1846; AND OF BONE, FROM JAN. 1, 1844, TO JAN. 1, 1846.

| | Sperm. | Whale. | Bone. |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1838, | 132,356 | 226,552 | ..... |
| 1839, | 142,336 | 229,783 | ..... |
| 1840, | 157,791 | 207,908 | ..... |
| 1841, | 159,304 | 207,348 | ..... |
| 1842, | 165,637 | 161,041 | ..... |
| 1843, | 166,985 | 206,727 | ..... |
| 1844, | 139,594 | 262,047 | 2,532,445 |
| 1845, | 157,917 | 272,730 | 3,167,142 |

We estimate the quantity of sperm oil to arrive in 1846, at 117,000 bbls. Of whale, it is impossible as yet to form an estimate with any degree of accuracy, owing to the meagre accounts yet received from the northwest coast.

STATEMENT OF OILS AND WHALEBONE ON HAND, DECEMBER 30, 1845.

| | Sperm. | Whale. | Bone. |
|---|---|---|---|
| New Bedford, | 8,101 | 2,620 | 201,000 |
| Fairhaven, | 6,300 | 2,600 | 10,000 |
| Westport, | 3,200 | ..... | ..... |
| Nantucket, about | 20,000 | ..... | ..... |
| Edgartown, | 1,000 | ..... | ..... |
| Falmouth, | 500 | ..... | ..... |
| Newport, | 500 | ..... | ..... |
| Boston, | 1,100 | ..... | ..... |
| Total, | 40,701 | 5,221 | 211,000 |

The above statement includes all recent importations, and all crude oils in manufacturers' hands, in the ports named.

AMOUNT OF OIL ON HAND, JANUARY 1, 1845.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Sperm, | bbls. | 32,992 |
| Whale, | | 12,950 |

AVERAGE VOYAGES—ARRIVALS IN 1845.

| | Average absence. | Average cargo. | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 91 sperm whalers, | 43m. 21 d. | 1,291 | 387. |
| 201 two season right whale, | 24m. .. d. | 196 | 2,187 |
| 8 one season right whale, | 12m. 4 d. | 46 | 844 |
| 43 Atlantic sperm whale, | 13m. 7 d. | 338 | 76 |

AVERAGE STATEMENT OF THE PRICES OF SPERM AND WHALE OIL AND WHALEBONE.

| | Sperm, gall. | Whale, gall. | Bone, lbs. |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1845, | 87½ c. | 36 c. | 33½ c. |
| 1844, | 90½ | 36½ | 40 |
| 1843, | 63 | 34½ | 35½ |
| 1842, | 73 | 33½ | 23 |
| 1841, | 94 | 31½ | 19½ |
| 1840, | 100 | 30½ | 19 |

COMPARATIVE STATEMENT OF THE NUMBER AND TONNAGE OF VESSELS EMPLOYED IN THE WHALE FISHERY, JANUARY 1.

| | Ships and bqs. | Brigs. | Schs. | Sloops. | Tons. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1846, | 680 | 34 | 22 | 1 | 233,262 |
| 1845, | 643 | 35 | 16 | 1 | 218,655 |
| 1844, | 595 | 41 | 8 | 1 | 200,147 |

Of the above, the number owned at each port is as follows:

| | Ships and bqs. | Brigs. | Schs. | | Ships and bqs. | Brigs. | Schs. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| New Bedford, | 252 | 3 | 1 | Westport, | 8 | 3 | . |
| Nantucket, | 73 | 1 | . | Bristol, R. I., | 5 | 1 | . |
| New London, | 69 | 1 | 7 | Mattapoisett, | 5 | 5 | . |
| Sag Harbor, | 63 | . | . | Fall River, | 5 | 2 | . |
| Fairhaven, | 48 | . | . | Wareham, | 4 | 2 | . |
| Warren, R. I., | 25 | . | . | Falmouth, | 4 | . | . |
| Stonington, Conn., | 26 | . | . | Holmes's Hole, | 3 | 1 | . |
| Mystic, Conn., | 18 | . | . | Provincetown, | 3 | 9 | 12 |
| Greenport, | 11 | . | . | Lynn, | 3 | . | . |
| Newport, | 10 | 1 | 1 | Plymouth, | 3 | . | . |
| Providence, R. I., | 9 | . | . | Bridgeport, Conn., | 3 | . | . |
| Edgartown, | 8 | 2 | . | Sippican, | 3 | 2 | . |
| Cold Spring, | 8 | . | . | | | | |

## MACKEREL FISHERY OF MASSACHUSETTS.

We give, below, an official abstract return of the number of barrels, halves, quarters, and eighths of barrels of mackerel, inspected in Massachusetts, from January 1st, 1845, to December 31st, 1845. It will be seen that there is an increase in 1845 of 116,122 barrels over the previous year. These returns include 6,000 barrels of English mackerel.

| Towns. | No. 1. | No. 2. | No. 3. | ½ No. 1. | ½ No. 2. | ½ No. 3. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Boston, | 2,190 | 11,077 | 11,288 | 6,016 | 7,335 | 2,912 |
| Beverly, | 14 | 21 | 19 | 00 | 00 | 00 |
| Barnstable, | 213 | 1,820 | 1,403 | 346 | 311 | 18 |
| Cohasset, | 646 | 4,673 | 9,372 | 1,337 | 2,948 | 474 |
| Chatham, | 10 | 501 | 397 | 50 | 40 | 30 |
| Duxbury, | 11 | 42 | 32 | 00 | 00 | 00 |
| Dennis, | 599 | 2,005 | 2,191 | 222 | 1,109 | 148 |
| Gloucester, | 4,106 | 18,260 | 18,342 | 4,494 | 7,112 | 1,245 |
| Hingham, | 1,370 | 7,662 | 6,369 | 831 | 1,739 | 359 |
| Marblehead, | 20 | 295 | 236 | 15 | 63 | 35 |
| Newburyport, | 1,830 | 2,532 | 5,463 | 1,740 | 423 | 60 |
| Provincetown, | 724 | 3,528 | 4,741 | 503 | 1,734 | 40 |
| Rockport, | 987 | 3,206 | 3,876 | 380 | 896 | 87 |
| Scituate, | 57 | 482 | 809 | 40 | 235 | 4 |
| Salem, | 00 | 52 | 45 | 00 | 00 | 00 |
| Truro, | 873 | 5,530 | 7,213 | 1,315 | 2,552 | 174 |
| Wellfleet, | 1,909 | 8,027 | 7,949 | 826 | 2,617 | 250 |
| Yarmouth, | 63 | 1,707 | 2,680 | 389 | 593 | 43 |
| Total, | 15,622 | 71,420 | 82,425 | 18,504 | 30,707 | 5,879 |

TABLE—Continued.

| Towns. | ¼ No. 1. | ¼ No. 2. | ¼ No. 3. | ¼ No. 1. | ¼ No. 2. | Total. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Boston, | 3,696 | 2,519 | 74 | 5,259 | 1,707 | 35,129½ |
| Beverly, | 00 | 00 | 00 | 00 | 00 | 54 |
| Barnstable, | 48 | 12 | 00 | 30 | 00 | 3,792½ |
| Cohasset, | 1,418 | 571 | 3 | 123 | 4 | 17,584½ |
| Chatham, | 20 | 00 | 00 | 00 | 00 | 973 |
| Duxbury, | 00 | 00 | 00 | 00 | 00 | 85 |
| Dennis, | 406 | 473 | 19 | 250 | 106 | 5,803½ |
| Gloucester, | 1,856 | 1,776 | 509 | 58 | 285 | 48,711½ |
| Hingham, | 820 | 610 | 00 | 520 | 00 | 17,288 |
| Marblehead, | 3 | 00 | 00 | 00 | 00 | 608½ |
| Newburyport, | 453 | 43 | 00 | 6 | 1 | 11,061½ |
| Provincetown, | 11 | 8 | 17 | 19 | 3 | 10,143½ |
| Rockport, | 136 | 201 | 00 | 00 | 00 | 8,835 |
| Scituate, | 3 | 1 | 00 | 00 | 00 | 1,488½ |
| Salem, | 00 | 00 | 00 | 00 | 00 | 97 |
| Truro, | 254 | 127 | 2 | 52 | 75 | 15,748½ |
| Wellfleet, | 404 | 00 | 00 | 61 | 75 | 19,899½ |
| Yarmouth, | 131 | 24 | 00 | 00 | 00 | 5,091½ |
| Total, | 9,659 | 6,565 | 624 | 6,378 | 2,256 | 202,303 |

RECAPITULATION.

| | 1845. | 1844. | |
|---|---|---|---|
| No. 1, | 28,086 | 28,843 | 757 less. |
| No. 2, | 88,696¼ | 22,515 | 66,171¼ more. |
| No. 3, | 85,520¼ | 34,823 | 50,697¼ more. |
| Total, | 202,303 | 86,181 | |

## SHIPPING BUILT IN THE DISTRICT OF BATH, MAINE.

We have obtained, from an authentic source, a list of all the vessels built in the district of Bath, in the state of Maine, in 1845, which we publish below. The district comprises Hallowell, Augusta, Gardiner, Phipsburgh, Pittston, Bowdoinham, Richmond, Georgetown, and Bath.

*Ships.*

| Name. | Where built. | Tons. | Name. | Where built. | Tons. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Arkansas, | Bath, | 399.20 | Vermont, | Phipsburgh, | 398.25 |
| B. C. Bailey, | " | 470.92 | Robert Patten, | Bowdoinham, | 376.31 |
| Emma Watts, | " | 449.69 | Columbia, | Bath, | 399.38 |
| Macedonia, | " | 414.75 | Charlotte Reed, | " | 471.09 |

*Barks.*

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Cuba, | Brunswick, | 207.04 | Lowell, | Gardiner, | 347.62 |
| Juniata, | Pittston, | 395.00 | Globe, | Richmond, | 366.53 |
| Nacoochee, | Augusta, | 254.74 | | | |

*Brigs.*

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| North Star, | Bath, | 152.55 | Naritiske, | Hallowell, | 160.79 |
| Orion, | Richmond, | 179.10 | Caribbee, | Pittston, | 219.11 |
| Home, | Gardiner, | 138.94 | James Marshall, | Richmond, | 164.78 |
| Stephen Young, | Pittston, | 196.73 | Wanderer, | Bowdoinham, | 197.32 |
| Curacoa, | Richmond, | 131.06 | Consuelo, | Richmond, | 173.14 |
| Globe, | Pittston, | 208.84 | Charles Henry, | " | 144.42 |

*Schrs.*

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A. Emery, | Phipsburgh, | 98.47 | Somerset, | Augusta, | 101.92 |
| Ustaloga, | Pittston, | 129.47 | Ophir, | Gardiner, | 134.30 |
| Harbinger, | Georgetown, | 36.15 | Sylva Wildes, | Phipsburgh, | 70.13 |
| Orion, | " | 37.04 | Enterprise, | Bowdoinham, | 98.56 |
| Yucatan, | Richmond, | 106.70 | Alexandria, | Augusta, | 111.83 |
| Oregon, | Georgetown, | 40.62 | Bath, | Bath, | 99.34 |
| Splendid, | Richmond, | 21.00 | ——, | Georgetown, | 62.54 |

*Steamboat.*

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Nequasset, | Bath, | 99.27 | | | |

*Boats.*

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Yankeedonia, | Georgetown, | 13.83 | Little Sarah, | Bath, | 8.62 |
| Noble, | Bath, | 15.62 | King-Fisher, | Georgetown, | 12.51 |
| Lilly, | Hallowell, | 7.27 | Youth, | " | 6.51 |
| Mary Elizabeth, | Georgetown, | 15.75 | Lydia and Harriet, | " | 16.11 |

RECAPITULATION.

| | Tons. 95ths. |
|---|---|
| Total tonnage of ships, | 3,379.74 |
| " " barks, | 1,559.02 |
| " " brigs, | 2,068.73 |
| " " schooners, | 1,140.37 |
| " " steamboat, | 99.27 |
| " " boats, | 96.42 |
| Total of all, | 8,351.65 |

# MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

## IMPORTANCE OF MERCANTILE LIBRARY ASSOCIATIONS.

We have received a copy of an address delivered before the Boston Mercantile Library Association, on the occasion of the twenty-fifth anniversary, by the Hon. Robert C. Winthrop; forming an octavo pamphlet of 38 pages, the first twenty of which are devoted chiefly to local topics, and the remainder to the pursuit of commerce in its larger and more comprehensive relations. From the former part, we give below a single extract illustrative of the importance of mercantile associations, so admirably adapted to prepare their members for the future merchants of the country; "those, who in the progress of time, are to take the places of the intelligent, the enterprising, the wealthy and honorable men, who now carry on the vast foreign and domestic trade" of our great commercial cities. The second article in the present number of this Magazine, embraces an extended extract from Mr. Winthrop's admirable address, which exhibits, in a clear and forcible manner, the influence of commerce in the affairs of the world.

"If there be a class of institutions more important than any or all others, to the moral character of our community, it is that which furnishes entertainment and employment during the evenings—the long winter, and the short summer evenings, too—for young men; and more especially for those, who either have no homes to which they may resort, or for whom the influences of the paternal roof have been in any way paralyzed. Libraries and reading-rooms for the merchants' clerks and the mechanics' apprentices of our city, numerous enough and spacious enough to accommodate them all, and furnished with every temptation which the amplest endowments can supply; these are among the most effective instruments which can be devised, for advancing our highest moral and social interests, and are entitled to the most liberal encouragement of all true philanthropists. It is not enough that the tippling shops and gambling tables are broken up. There is mischief still for idle minds to devise, and for idle hands to do. Innocent entertainment and useful occupation must be supplied, and supplied with some circumstance of interest and attraction, and fascination, if possible, or you have only driven dissipation and vice from the public haunt to the private hiding place, where they will lose nothing of their grossness or their guilt, by losing all their apprehension of exposure. And when the cheering spectacle is exhibited of the young men of the city, associating themselves for this great end of their own self-defence; organizing themselves not into a company, like that recently instituted by the merchants' clerks of London, for making up to their employers out of a common stock, the losses which may result from their own annual, ascertained, average of fraud and roguery, but into a company to insure themselves against the vices and immoralities and idleness from which those losses and those frauds flow as

from their fountain—what heart can refuse them its sincerest sympathy, what tongue its most encouraging word, what hand its most efficient aid?

"If there be an appeal for sympathy and encouragement which no patriotic or philanthropic breast can resist, it is that of young men struggling against the temptations which beset their path, and striving to prepare themselves, intellectually and morally, for discharging the duties which are about to devolve on their maturer life. And if there be a spectacle calculated to fill every such breast with joy, and to reward a thousand fold those who may have contributed in any way to the result, it is that of young men who have thus striven and struggled with success. There is a name in history. It is associated with some of the proudest achievements of the proudest empire of the world. It has been shouted along the chariot-ways of imperial Rome on occasions of her most magnificent triumphs. Whole volumes have been filled with the brilliant acts which have illustrated that name in three successive generations. But there is a little incident which takes up hardly ten lines on the historic page, which has invested it with a charm higher and nobler than all these. The Sybils, we are told, had prophesied that the *Bona Dea* should be introduced into Rome by the best man among the Romans. The Senate was accordingly busied to pass judgment who was *the best man in the city.* And it is no small tribute to the Roman virtue of that day, that all men are said to have been more ambitious to get the victory in that dispute, than if they had stood to be elected to the highest and most lucrative offices and honors within the gift of the Senate or the people. The Senate at last selected PUBLIUS SCIPIO; of whom the only record is, that he was the nephew of Cneus, who was killed in Spain, and that he was a *young man,* who had never attained to that lowest of all the public honors of the empire, for which it was only necessary for him to have reached the age of two-and-twenty years. We may admire—we must admire—the resistless energy, the matchless heroism, of those two thunderbolts of war—Scipio, the conqueror of Hannibal, and Scipio, the destroyer of Carthage. But who does not feel, that this little story has thrown around that name a halo of peerless brilliancy; yes, one

> Which shall new lustre boast,
> When monarchs' gems and victors' wreaths
> Shall blend in common dust!"

## CONSUMPTION OF SUGAR IN DIFFERENT COUNTRIES.

The Zollverein, with a population of 29,066,000 souls, consumes annually 70,000 tons of cane, and 10,500 of beet-root sugar. Belgium, Holland, Oldenburgh, Hamburgh, Bremen, Lubeck, Hanover, and Meckburgh, with a gross population of 10,349,000, consume altogether 51,000 tons of cane, and 5,000 of beet-root sugar. Russia, with a population of 56,778,000, consumes 62,400 tons of cane, and 6,000 of beet-root sugar. France, with a population of 35,400,000, consumes 89,000 tons of French colonial sugar, 11,000 tons of foreign colonial sugar, and 28,000 tons of beet-root sugar. Portugal, with a population of 3,412,000, consumes 10,000 tons of sugar. Spain, with a population of 13,786,000, consumes 36,000 tons (36,000 tons of Cuba sugar in 1844.) Sweden, Norway, and Denmark, with a population of 6,509,000, consume altogether 12,000 tons of sugar. Great Britain and Ireland, with a population of 28,323,000, consumes 240,000 tons of sugar per year; the Ionian islands, Gibraltar, Cracow, and Switzerland, consume altogether about 46,000 tons of sugar. Turkey and Greece, with a population of 10,700,000, consume only 4,000 tons of sugar. Canada, and other colonies, with a population of 4,544,000, consume, it is estimated, about 15,000 tons; and the United States, with a population of 18,700,000, consumes 150,000 tons of sugar. The gross total population of the above sugar-consuming countries, amounts to 278,033,000 souls, and the total annual consumption of sugar amounts to 845,900 tons. In the Zollverein, the proportion of sugar consumed by each individual per annum, amounts to 6 1-8 lbs.; in the German states, not therein included, to 12 1-16 lbs.; in Russia, to 1 1-16 lbs.; in France, to 8 2-10 lbs.; in Portugal, to 6 6-10 lbs.; in Spain, to 6 5-10 lbs.; in Scandinavia, to 4 1-10 lbs.; in Great Britain, to 19 lbs.; and in the United States of America to 18 lbs.

## FIRST TRADING SETTLEMENT ON THE COLUMBIA RIVER.

It is stated by J. T. Buckingham, Esq., the editor of the Boston Courier, that Captain Jonathan Winship, of Brighton, projected and commenced the first attempt, by any civilized person, to establish a trading establishment on the Columbia river. Two ships were employed on the expedition, the O'Cain, under the command of Captain Winship himself, and the Albatross, commanded by Captain Nathan Winship, his brother. The latter sailed from Boston July 7, 1809, with about twenty-five persons on board, and with the proper outfit for such an undertaking. She had a long passage to Cape Horn, and arrived at the Sandwich Islands March 25, of the succeeding year. Here an addition of twenty-five persons, all islanders but one, was made to the party, and the ship was properly provisioned. She sailed for the Columbia April 18, and arrived at the mouth of the river May 25. The log-book of the ship describes her course up the river as one of great difficulty, through the strong current, the shallowness of some parts of the river, and ignorance of the channel, Vancouver's chart being quite incorrect. After cruising up the river ten days, a place was selected for the settlement, and preparations were made for the erection of a large trading and dwelling-house, land was cleared for cultivation, and some seeds were sown, when a rise in the river put a stop to their operations. The land was overflowed, and the house, which was nearly finished, was filled with water to the depth of eighteen inches. Of course the spot had to be abandoned.

At this time, Captain Jonathan Winship, in the O'Cain, was at Sir Francis Drake's Bay, California, and his brother determined to join and consult with him, before attempting another location. The settlement was temporarily abandoned, and the Albatross left the river July 18. The two ships continued trading and sealing upon the coast, but did not return to the Columbia, as Mr. Astor's projected settlement had become known; and as he had sent out force and material for the large establishment of Astoria, it was considered useless for a rival company, so much inferior in strength, to attempt to compete with him. The expedition, however, was not finally given up, until the breaking out of the war of 1812, when all thought of renewing it was abandoned.

## DUTY ON, AND CONSUMPTION OF TEA.

In Great Britain, the consumption of tea is equal to one pound and a half to each individual of the population, per annum. Foreign coffee pays sixteen cents per pound duty in Great Britain, and Colonial eight cents. In 1821, the consumption per head to the inhabitants of the United States, was one pound and a quarter, and in 1830, the proportion had increased to three pounds per head. It is now more than four pounds per head. In the Island of Newfoundland, where the duty is about five cents per pound, the annual consumption is equal to five pounds per individual of the whole population; and in the Channel Islands, where the duty is also very low, the annual consumption is equal to four pounds and a half to each person. Coffee is admitted free of duty into the United States. A low duty of one or two cents per pound would add something to our revenue, without materially affecting the consumption, and enable the government to reduce the duty where it bears more heavily.

## THE BRITISH REVENUE.

The last quarterly returns of the revenue of Great Britain show a decrease amounting to £800,000, as compared with the corresponding quarter in 1844. In order to understand the reason for such a decrease, it should be borne in mind that the reductions of Sir Robert Peel, in the session of Parliament, in the customs and excise duties, amounted to £3,000,000, viz.: sugar duties, £1,300,000; export duties, (coals,) £118,000; cotton, (about) £700,000; sundries, £320,000; auction duties, £250,000, and glass, £642,000.

# THE BOOK TRADE.

1.—*The History of Rome.* By THOMAS ARNOLD, D. D., late Regius Professor of Modern History in the University of Oxford, Head Master of Rugby School, and Member of the Archæological Society of Rome. Three volumes in two. Reprinted entire from last London edition. In two volumes. New York: D. Appleton & Co. Philadelphia: G. S. Appleton.

It must be a satisfactory consolation to the admirers of Dr. Arnold, that his great unfinished history is published this side of the Atlantic, subsequently to the issue of his other interesting volumes. Whatever may be the opinions of critics of the fidelity with which he has copied Niebuhr, to whom Dr. Arnold expresses the deepest obligation, no one can deny that he has imparted to his history of that oft-storied land, a philosophic interest, that it has not yet received from an English pen. The first volume embraces the period from the founding of Rome, till its capture by the Gauls, in the 4th century before the Christian era. In the next, we are brought to the end of the first Punic war. The distinguished author intended to have carried the history to the coronation of Charlemagne, A. D. 800, but the last volume, published since his death, closes with the war of Scipio and Hannibal, in Africa. Thus unfinished, at the threshold of the period in the narration of which he would have displayed the historian's power, it gives but a fragmentary idea of what it would have been if completed. But as it is, it will be looked upon as a model of classical and philosophical history, gracefully scholarlike in style and execution, severely accurate and critically truthful in narration, most elegant in its original design, most beautiful even in its incompleteness, admirable not more from itself than its author. It is issued in two finished volumes of Appleton's best style.

2.—*The History of New Netherlands, or New York, under the Dutch.* By E. B. O'CALLAGHAN, Corresponding Member of the New York Historical Society. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

This splendid volume gives a history of New York, from its first settlement, in 1609, until the year 1646. It also contains an account of the Dutch West India Company, and their attempts to find a passage to India, which resulted in the settlement of, and their subsequent connection with the colony. A map of New Netherlands, and many valuable papers, obtained from Holland through Dr. Brodhead, are also prefixed to the work. The author has evidently compiled this valuable matter from the most authentic sources, and principally, we believe, from the colonial annals in Albany. We are pleased to learn, that a continuation of the history of the colony, under Peter Stuyvesant, will follow, should the present volume be successful, which it certainly deserves to be, as its importance to our historical literature can only be discerned by an examination of its faithfulness and the valuable materials incorporated in it. It is a noble monument of the research and scholarship of its author, and a credit to the discriminating taste of its enterprising publishers.

3.—*Christmas Holydays in Rome.* By the Rev. WM. INGRAHAM KIP, author of the "Double Witness of the Church," "The Lenten Fast," etc. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

The writer of this work entered upon his task knowing how often the field had been occupied before him, but, by choosing novel and peculiar portions of the subject for his pen, has produced an interesting and delightful volume. In the description of the "eternal city" at Christmas-time, he has occupied a considerable part of the work, and with matter relating to the Romish church, in regard to which there is a spirit of much candor and judgment displayed. He neither lavishes indiscriminate abuse, or unwarrantable praise, but shows in what its good lies, and why it has so long ruled the minds of men. St. Peter's church mirrors itself to his mind in not an unworthy manner, and of the Vatican, Capitoline Hill, the papal court, and the country about Rome, he has sketched many beautiful features, that will make the oft-described city seem new to those who think themselves familiar with it.

4.—*A Practical Treatise on Healthy Skin, with Rules for the Medical and Domestic Treatment of Cutaneous Diseases.* By ERASMUS WILSON, F. R. S., etc., etc., etc. Illustrated with six steel engravings. New York: D. Appleton & Co. Philadelphia: G. S. Appleton.

This department of medical science has long needed a work like this, for besides being scientific and analytical, it is adapted to the purposes of the physician, as well as that of the patient. The structure of the skin, its peculiarities, and the different kinds of eruptions, both those which impair the outward beauty, and those which spring from unhealthy affections, or cause them, and its relation to the general health of the system, are all carefully explained. The influence of diet, clothing, and exercise, upon it, and particularly the chapter on hydropathy, with that upon bathing, the different and best kinds of baths; all of this information is needed by almost every individual.

5.—*Chances and Changes; or, Life as it is; Illustrated in the History of a Straw Hat.* By CHARLES BURDETT, A. M., author of "Never Too Late," "The Elliott Family," "Trials and Triumphs," "The Adopted Child," etc. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

Those who have read and admired the previous stories of Mr. Burdett, should not forego the pleasure this will afford them, for it bears the marks of a growing mind and a more mature intellect. Like all the previous efforts of Mr. Burdett, it inculcates sound practical lessons of morality and religion in the form of interesting and agreeable narrative.

6.—*Poems by Felicia Hemans, with an Essay on her Genius.* By H. T. TUCKERMAN. Edited by RUFUS W. GRISWOLD. Philadelphia: Sorin & Ball.

If any attractiveness could be added to Mrs. Hemans's poems, which they did not intrinsically possess, it is offered here, in the beautiful essay by Henry T. Tuckerman, which follows the comprehensive memoir by Mr. Griswold. It is a masterpiece of criticism, and skilful appreciation of genius. Of the poems themselves, and the value of the volume, it would be almost detraction to speak; to read the one with which the volume ends, "A Poet's Dying Hymn," is enough for us not to wonder at the universal acknowledgment of her genius; and when we add that the execution of the volume is superior, and like many from the same publishers which we have received, almost unsurpassed, we trust that its claims upon the book-purchasing community will be duly acknowledged.

7.—*The Poetical Works of James Montgomery, with a Memoir of the Author.* By Rev. RUFUS W. GRISWOLD. In two volumes. Philadelphia: Sorin & Ball.

Few poets have been done up in more costly binding than is the dress with which these volumes are clothed. Besides the exterior, the elegant engravings and the distinct typography are highly creditable to the taste of the publishers. One of the best features of the contents, is the memoir, by Mr. Griswold, of the editor-poet's life, and critical view of his poems. Of Montgomery's poetry, we have always been admirers; in the poems not directly sacred and religious, there is a soul-elevating spirit which is productive of the best influence upon the heart. Though of a school little admired now, because shut out by the innovation of an energetic striving for novelty, his productions are sufficient to have given him an enviable rank among the poets of the day. These volumes should have a conspicuous position on the shelves of the library, and we should consider it a great addition to literature, if editions of the most popular English poets could be published in a style uniform with these; for in mechanical beauty they have rarely been excelled.

8.—*A Practical Manual of Elocution, Embracing Voice and Gesture, Designed for Schools, Academies, and Colleges, as well as for Private Learners.* By MERRITT CALDWELL, A. M., Professor of Metaphysics, etc., in Dickinson College. Philadelphia: Sorin & Ball.

This is one of the most theoretical books on the subject of elocution, and at the same time most practical, we have ever seen. Professor Caldwell has suited his system to the philosophy of the human voice, as given by Dr. Rush, and embodied scientific principles, as well as the accurate precepts. The cuts are well adapted to illustrate these explicit rules, and in that part of the work which treats of pulpit and dramatic action, it will be seen how much depends upon the publishers for the correct issue of a work like this. In this respect, they have well discharged their task.

9.—*The Life and Times of Henry Clay.* By CALVIN COLTON, author of the "Junius Tracts," "Four Years in Great Britain," etc. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co.

It would be difficult for a political or personal friend of the subject of this memoir, to speak of it otherwise than in terms of eulogy; for who could write a life of Henry Clay without the enthusiasm which the subject would impart, were he ever so dull? But Mr. Colton has done his work—a great work—bravely and well. We consider Henry Clay the first indigenous noble fruit of our republic, to have produced whom were worthy a sacrifice by any country—him, to whom the present has done dishonor, that the future may do him glory. This is the first successful life of Henry Clay, yet written; this describes the man, not as a politician, orator, statesman, alone, but as all, and that honestly, candidly, thoughtfully, and the darkest and deepest passages intelligibly and philosophically. The chapters of his early life and personal character, are beautiful, and the account of his political rise, intensely interesting. Mr. Clay's political principles and views are clearly and accurately given, and the ingratitude of the American people powerfully suggested, but little touched upon. Mr. Colton has, in short, done his work well; and as hallowing time cleaves more closely to these glorious events—the gold and jewels of our history—his labors will not be forgotten. The memoir is comprised in two as noble volumes as ever emanated from the American press.

10.—*Williams' Statistical Companion and Pictorial Almanac for* 1846. With Sixteen Portraits. New York: Homans & Ellis.

This is decidedly the best manual of the kind that we have ever seen published. It contains the usual calendar pages of an almanac, the most interesting statistics of the United States and European countries, accurately compiled, and presented in a very concise, and at the same time comprehensive form; and although an almanac, it will be useful as a book of reference in all time to come. It contains sixteen portraits of the reigning sovereigns of Europe, and other distinguished functionaries at home and abroad. It is worth a dozen of the Doggett's New York Almanac.

11.—*A Picture of New York in* 1846, *with a Short Account of Places in its Vicinity; Designed as a Guide to Citizens and Strangers; with Numerous Engravings and a Map of the City.* New York: Homans & Ellis.

Corresponding in size, style, etc., with the Statistical Almanac by the same publishers, it is emphatically what its title designates, a "Picture of New York." The numerous engravings of churches, banks, etc., and the various public buildings that ornament the city, are all beautifully executed, and add not a little to the interest of the letter-press information with which the volume abounds. We may refer to this in a future number of the Magazine.

12.—*The Letters and Speeches of Oliver Cromwell.* By THOMAS CARLYLE. In two volumes. New York: Wiley & Putnam's Library of Choice Reading.

A modest title, truly, for a great and extraordinary work, in which it can be seen how materials, such as speeches and letters, old and dead, like the "dry bones" of the prophets, can be so arranged, revivified, and infused with life, by the breath of genius and power, as to form a living, beautiful work. Mr. Carlyle has not merely been an editor of these, but with these, he has been the first biographer of Cromwell and most philosophical historian of the time. He has supplied the interstices of the history, and an introduction and conclusion, saying little, save by way of deduction, in that expressive, condensed, odd—eminently odd—style of his. He admires Cromwell, and wishes to make us do the same, not after his own *dictum*, but from the true graphic picture of the man, as expressed in his public writings, his social and political deeds, and his private letters and prayers. To us, this crabbed, fearless philosophy of his, these lashings of the mercenary spirit of the now decaying, but once heroic commonwealth, for which he writes so patriotically, has much refreshing nobleness.

13.—*Memoirs of Benevento Cellini, a Florentine Artist, Written by Himself; Containing a Variety of Information respecting the Arts and the History of the Sixteenth Century.* With the Notes and Observations of G. P. CARBBARI. Translated by THOMAS ROSCOE, Esq. In two volumes. Foreign Library, Nos. I. and II. New York: Wiley & Putnam.

Mr. Roscoe, as a translator of Italian works, has given to this most perfect of autobiographies, all the clearness of the most *recherché* English work. Benevento, at once a soldier, musician, and poet, was long engaged in the humble occupation of goldsmithing and bronze-casting, out of which material he made himself a distinguished artist. Intimate with the artists and statesmen of that time—the age of "Medici" the magnificent, he has rendered a lasting benefit to posterity, by giving it so much of interest concerning them. After he fixed their portraits upon the canvass, he transferred to his record the reflection their characters had painted on his mind; and even the adventures of his own life, in the description of which he unconsciously portrays his power, have an interest that is surprising. It is seldom that an artist and genius, as well as man of action, bravery, and independence, is equally industrious to do for his contemporaries in his own autobiography what Cellini has done in his.

14.—*The Rhine.* By VICTOR HUGO, in Two Parts. Foreign Library. New York: Wiley & Putnam.

These graphic pictures of the Rhine, are written in the form of letters to a friend, and partake rather of the art and judgment of an experienced scholar, and man of the world, than of the poet. They embody many historic legends and associations of the middle ages, connected with the castled river whose banks are lined with the ruins of times full of chivalry and poesy. Hugo's mind blends the grotesque, fantastic and romantic, in descriptions of truthful detail, that admirably adapt the book to the purposes of guide and reference for those who travel through that beautiful region. With a clear and observing intellect, and brilliant imagination, he wants that deep noble enthusiasm, so characteristic of the Teuton and Saxon, and always deficient in French writers.

15.—*Lectures on the English Poets.* By WILLIAM HAZLITT. From third London edition, edited by his son. New York: Wiley & Putnam's Library of Choice Reading.

The introductory lecture is on "Poetry in General," and is doubtless one of Hazlitt's most labored and discriminating efforts. In the subsequent lectures, he takes up successively, and in his most philosophical and yet engaging style, Chaucer and Spenser, Shakespeare and Milton, Dryden and Pope, Thompson and Cowper, Swift, Young, Gray, Collins, Shenstone, Chatterton, Burns; and of the living poets, Rogers Campbell, Moore, Byron, Scott, Wordsworth, Southey, and Coleridge; in addition, appendixes on Milton's Lycidas and Eve, Wordsworth's Excursion, and Pope, Bowles, and Lord Byron.

16.—*Tasso's Jerusalem Delivered. Godfrey of Bulleigne, or the Recovery of Jerusalem, done into English Heroical Verse from the Italian of Tasso.* By EDWARD FAIRFAX. First American, from the seventh London edition, reprinted from original folio of 1600. To which are prefixed an Introductory Essay, by LEIGH HUNT, and the Lives of Tasso and Fairfax, by CHARLES KNIGHT. New York: Wiley & Putnam's Library of Choice Reading.

Few poets have been more fortunate in their translators, than he who sang the high and chivalrous deeds of the crusaders in his "Jerusalem Delivered." Lord Fairfax had a poet's taste and appreciation, which the greatest critics of England have placed but little below Tasso's genius. The grand, magnificent poem, needs no remark, but that, with the life of the mighty fabricator, and of his elegant translator combined, offer attractions very rarely presented so conveniently to the public.

17.—*The Pilgrim in the Shadow of the Jungfrau Alp.* By GEORGE B. CHEEVER, D. D. New York: Wiley & Putnam's Library of American Books, No. XI.

What we said in our notice of Dr. Cheever's previous work, "Wanderings of a Pilgrim under the Shadow of Mont Blanc," in a former number of this Magazine, will apply with equal force to the present volume. The descriptions of whatever is wonderful, sublime, gloomy, or terrible in nature, embracing the Jungfrau, the Grand Scheidseck, the pass of the Furca, the romantic St. Gothard, the sky-gazing brow of the Righi, the Wallenstadt passes, the amazing pass of the Splugen, and all that the author could see, are fully appreciated, and graphically and powerfully described Dr. Cheever goes "moralizing all the way upon icy texts, and wishing to make a volume more of thoughts than things." The only fault that we find with Dr. Cheever, is the sticking-outness of his puritan piety, which is not always the most tolerant.

18.—*The Practical Astronomer, Comprising Illustrations of Light and Colors; Practical Descriptions of all kinds of Telescopes; the Use of the Equatorial Transit; Circular and other Astronomical Instruments; a Particular Account of Rose's Large Telescopes, etc.* By THOMAS DICK, LL. D., author of the "Christian Philosopher," "Celestial Scenery," "Sidereal Heavens," etc. Illustrated with One Hundred Engravings. New York: Harper & Brothers.

The present work, which forms the fifth volume of "Harpers' New Miscellany," is intended for the information of general readers, especially for those who have acquired a relish for astronomical pursuits, and who wish to become acquainted with the instruments by which celestial observations are made, and to apply their mechanical skill to the construction of some of those which they may wish to possess. The minute details, in reference to the construction and practical application of all kinds of telescopes, etc., are not, we believe, to be found in general treatises on optics and astronomy.

19.—*A Pocket Atlas of the Descriptive Anatomy of the Human Body.* By J. N. MOSSE, M. D., Professor of Anatomy, Paris. Translated from the last Paris edition, and edited by GRANVILLE SHARP PATTISON, M. D., Professor of Anatomy in the University of New York; Member of the Medico-Chirurgical Society of London, etc., etc. New York: Harper & Brothers.

This work, though thoroughly scientific in its character, will not be altogether without interest to those who understand the anatomy of that "fearful and wonderful" being, who, we are told in sacred writ, was made but little lower than the angels. It embraces several hundred engravings, forming a complete atlas of the entire human anatomy in all its parts. The French edition of this work is considered one of the most beautiful works ever published in Paris, and the most critical must admit, says Pattison, that, in so far as the engraving and coloring is concerned, the American edition is, to say the least of it, fully equal to that executed by the Parisian artists. It is published by the Harpers at less than half the price charged for imported copies. The engravings on steel reflect the highest credit on that clever artist, Mr. Ormsby.

20.—*Pilgrims' Progress.* With a Life of John Bunyan, by ROBERT SOUTHEY, Esq., LL. D. Illustrated with fifty cuts, by Adams, after designs by Chapman, Harvey, and others. New York: Harper & Brothers.

A new and beautiful edition of a book, which, as Southey has truly said, makes its way through the fancy to the understanding and the heart. The child peruses it with wonder and delight; in youth, we discover the genius which it displays; its worth is apprehended as we advance in years; and we perceive its merits feelingly in declining age.

21.—*The Life of John Paul Jones.* By ALEXANDER SLIDELL MACKENZIE. Two vols. New York: Harper & Brothers.

The materials of this work are the best that could be found, relative to this hero of the ocean, and the account of the battles at sea, in which he distinguished himself so nobly, are well described. A great part of the information embodied in these volumes have such intimate connection with our own history, that the necessity for such a biography must be apparent. The portrait which forms the frontispiece, is taken from a miniature painted by a countess of the French court at the time of Paul Jones' visit after the capture of the Serapis, and afterwards deposited in the New York Naval Lyceum, and its accuracy is corroborated by his bust in the Academy of Design.

22.—*Tragedies, to which are added a few Sonnets and Verses.* By T. N. TALFOURD, Sergeant-at-Law. New York: C. S. Francis & Co.'s Cabinet Library. Boston: J. H. Francis.

The revival of the drama, and increasing demand at this time for the literature pertaining to it, enhance the worth of this publication to our community. It contains the author's three celebrated tragedies, besides sonnets on different subjects, and some of his other poetical productions. Our reading public, no less than the patrons of the dramatic art, have paid full tribute to the many excellences of "Ion," and not even the scalpel of the critic has marred its classical beauty or perfection. Like a Grecian statue, it is perfect in its kind, and appeals to the admiration of our time, for its embodiment of an ancient idea, expressed with all the spirit of the age from which its characters were taken. The other tragedies are less celebrated and finished, but all justify Sergeant Talfourd's claim to be called one of the first dramatists of the day.

23.—*Views, with Ground Plans, of the Highland Cottages at Roxbury, (near Boston,) designed and erected.* By WILLIAM BAILEY LANG. Boston: L. H. Bridgham & Co.

This volume contains finished drawings of several Highland cottages designed and erected by Mr. Lang, a highly respectable merchant of Boston; erected, too, without the aid of any professional architect. It is certainly a gratifying circumstance to find a gentleman in the midst of a busy commerce, cultivating a taste for architecture and rural life; we consider such an one a public benefactor, for setting an example so worthy of imitation. We wish there were more merchants, who, like Mr. Lang, would find amusement in thus endeavoring to create a taste for the useful and the elegant. "Abounding," says Mr. Lang, "as our country does in all directions, with an endless variety of beautiful sites for residences, it must be a source of regret to every lover of the picturesque, that the advantages lavished upon us so unsparingly by nature, have been, in times past, almost totally neglected." Mr. Lang has evinced, in these specimens of his self-taught skill, a true appreciation of the beautiful in nature and art, which justly entitle him to be named with Roscoe, Lamb, and the Medici family.

24.—*The Greece of the Greeks.* By G. A. PERDICARRIS, A. M., late Consul of the U. S. at Athens. In two volumes. New York: Paine & Burgess.

This rather striking title, is given to the book because it is an expression of the "views and opinions of the Greeks in general," and in this respect, the Greece represented in his book is that of the Greeks themselves, and more particularly of the Greeks of this day—their present condition, politically and morally. The author, from his familiarity with the modern Greek by birth, and an education received in this country, and especially from his late position, is well fitted to produce the best work on this subject. It is partly a journal, giving descriptions of the country as it is at present, alluding occasionally to the myriad classic associations called up by every foot of ground, suggesting a world of thought. The volume is illustrated with numerous well executed lithographs of ruins, and the scenery of the most noted places as they are now, with a frontispiece of the king and queen. It is an attractive book, and does great credit to its author.

25.—*Physical Education and the Preservation of Health.* By JOHN C. WARREN, M. D., Professor of Anatomy and Surgery in Harvard University. Boston: William D. Ticknor & Co.

The reader will find some things new in this volume, and it may serve to force trite and acknowledged truths upon his attention, and awaken his mind to a consideration of the most vital and important duty in our earthly existence. It was delivered by the author originally as a lecture, and treats, rather didactically than practically, upon physical training, to which subject, in addition to that of digestion, exercise, sleeping, bathing, and tobacco, the little volume is devoted. It might be made a useful manual to all, for there are many hints in it, an adoption of which would be followed doubtless by the most remarkable effects.

26.—*Characteristics of Women, Moral, Political, and Historical.* By MRS. JAMIESON, author of the "Diary of an Ennuyee," "Memoirs of Female Sovereigns," etc. From the last London edition. Boston: Wm. D. Ticknor & Co.

It is highly creditable to the taste of these publishers, that they should appreciate so well the wants of the community as to republish this unexcelled work of its kind; for, what Hazlitt and Schlegel have done for Shakespeare's heroes, Mrs. Jamieson has for his perfect ideals of women. The debt which she has laid upon her sex, by her histories and analyses of the character of distinguished women, she has here brought to a beautiful completion, in giving an opportunity, by presenting true conceptions of those living characters whose only existence must be in the mind of genius, to supply that want which the soul feels to exist in the sober prose of nature and human life.

27.—*The Modern Standard Drama; a Collection of the most Popular Acting Plays, with Critical Remarks; also, the Stage Business, Costumes, etc., etc.* Edited by EPES SARGENT, author of "Velasco, a Tragedy," etc. Volume I. New York: William Taylor.

The first volume of this library of dramatic literature, embraces six as popular plays as are to be found in the whole range of the modern drama, viz: Ion, by Thomas Noon Talfourd; Fazio, by the Rev. H. H. Milman; the Lady of Lyons, Money, and Richelieu, by Edward Lytton Bulwer; the Wife, by James Sheridan Knowles; the Honey Moon, by Richard B. Tobin; the School for Scandal, by Richard B. Sheridan. Mr. Sargent has written a preface to each play, and a brief memoir of Mrs. A. C. Mowatt, whose portrait forms the frontispiece of the volume. Mr. Sargent, whose taste in this department of literature is undoubted, has rendered a great service to the lovers of the drama, by giving them an opportunity to recall, by perusal, the impressions derived from the actual representation of these most choice modern plays.

23.—*The Chronic Diseases; their Specific Nature and Homœpathic Treatment.* By Dr. SAMUEL HAHNEMANN. Translated and Edited by Charles J. Hempel., M. D. New York: William Radde.

These volumes, now for the first time translated into English, from the great German founder of a system of medicine, that has already produced a revolution in the science, and is, if we mistake not, destined to exert a still greater influence in the practice, are confined to the Antipsoric and some other remedies. Though mainly designed for the medical practitioner and student, the present work will not prove altogether uninteresting to the intelligent inquirer after truth. The reputation of Dr. Hempel is a sufficient guarantee for the fidelity of the translation. We hope that the enterprise of Mr. Radde, the publisher, in bringing out works of this class, will be duly appreciated.

29.—*Aids to Reflection.* By SAMUEL TAYLOR COLERIDGE, with the Author's Last Corrections. Edited by HENRY NELSON COLERIDGE. With a Prefixed Preliminary Essay. By JOHN M'VICKAR, D. D., Professor of Moral Philosophy in Columbia College. New York: Stanford & Swords.

In this work, the index of the most progressive theology, the great world-teacher of truth seems to have intended his views not for sectional or sectarian influence, but for humanity. The first American editor of the work, the Rev. James Marsh, a name identified with Coleridge's in England and America, in his celebrated preliminary essay, applied the views of the work to his own theological tenets. A contrary apprehension of Coleridge's characteristics of theological belief, (based rather upon conclusions drawn from single expressions, than from an enlarged comprehension of the predominant ideas,) was the occasion of the first edition of the present volume. Setting aside this sectarian difference, no one can be indifferent to the fact that so many copies have been issued of one of the most earnest and thoughtful works which the Anglo-Saxon tongue has been the instrument of imparting to the student of philosophy, the earnest and truth-loving Christian, or the reflecting man.

30.—*The Alps and the Rhine; a Series of Sketches.* By J. T. HEADLEY. New York: Wiley & Putnam's Library of American Books, No. X.

This volume embraces rather a series of graceful and graphic sketches of the Alpine portion of Switzerland, and the scenery of the Rhine, than the usual Salmagundi of an ordinary book of travels. Mr. Headley, in writing of Switzerland, has omitted, almost altogether, notices of the character of the people, except of those occupying the valleys of the Alps. He has excluded all matter extraneous from his purpose, which appears to be that of giving a definite idea of the scenery of the Alps; and so far as we are capable of judging, he has grouped together the most wonderful forms of nature, as displayed to his admiring vision, amid scenes where God has clothed the world with whatever is beautiful and sublime.

31.—*Voltaire and Rousseau against the Atheists, or Essays and Detached Passages from these Writers, in Relation to the Being and Attributes of a God, Selected and Translated from the French.* By J. AKERLY. New York: Wiley & Putnam.

If this pamphlet has no other use than to defend these two opposers of orthodoxy from the charge of atheism, it will not be thrown away. But it has another; for if there is any one who can doubt the existence of the Deity, they will hardly find more cause for conviction of their error, than is embraced in these writings of infidels, in moral philosophies or sermons of theologians. Even the empirical "Bridgewater Treatise" philosophers, who would prove, not by *a priori* ideas, but by the poor logic of induction, or scientific reasoning, his being, will find here a greater revelation of his existence—that which the soul is conscious of, and which no honest soul can deny, though it denies all else—the conviction that *he* IS—as *we are*.

32.—*Fac Similes of Letters from His Excellency George Washington, President of the United States of America, to Sir John Sinclair, Bart., M. P., on Agricultural and other Interesting Documents. Engraved from his Original Letters, so as to be an exact Fac Simile of the Hand-Writing.* Washington: Franklin Knight.

33.—*Monuments of Washington's Patriotism, containing a Fac Simile of his Public Accounts kept during the Revolutionary War, and some of the most Interesting Documents connected with his Military Command and Civil Administration.* With embellishments. Fourth edition. Washington: Franklin Knight.

Each of these volumes contains one of the most perfect engravings ever executed by Sartain, of Stewart's best likeness of Washington, and a well executed engraving of Mount Vernon, and his "tomb" and "sarcophagus." The engraving of the fac similes is also admirable, and the whole execution of the works. The accounts extend through the most eventful period of our country's history, commencing June, 1775, and ending with June, 1783; and, in the language of a distinguished United States senator, they not only demonstrate an extraordinary degree of disinterested patriotism in the great father of his country, but exhibit, in bold relief, the systematic order he uniformly observed in all matters of business, and often under the most adverse circumstances, which is worthy of all imitation, by persons in every situation in life. The characteristic fac simile autograph recommendatory letters of Clay, Ewing, Webster, Woodbury, Crittenden, Tallmadge, Sergeant, Evans, Henderson, and other distinguished statesmen, will be viewed by many as an interesting feature of the publication. The letters in the first-named volume are a rich legacy to our industrious farmers, not only on account of their intrinsic excellence, but as a memorial of a great and good man.

34.—*The Hermit of Warkworth, and the Two Captains.* By the author of "Undine," "Aslauga's Knight," etc. Edited by a LADY.——*Natalia; Aslauga's Knight, and other Tales.* Edited by a LADY. Boston: Jordan & Wiley.

These two works are bound together, in one neat volume; the first containing the "Hermit of Warkworth," a poetical tale, and the "Two Captains;" and the last "Natalia," "Aslauga's Knight," "Blanche Rose," and a *vision* in verse—"Conjugal Love." They embody the peculiar genius of their author, Frederick De La Motte Fauque, characterised by so much of the supernatural, and wild and fanciful in creation, which marks his best known production, "Undine." Aslauga's Knight is a tale displaying the power of genius in the pourtrayal of a character of deep devotion. "Blanche Rose" is more common-place in its character, while "Natalia" pictures a perfect woman; and in the "Two Captains," we see the chivalrous idea beautifully interwoven with the superstitious.

35.—*First Lessons in English Composition; or, a Help to Young Writers.* By E. NOTT, D. D., President of Union College. New York: Saxton & Miles.

This is the most comprehensive, common-sense treatise on the principles of composition, that we have ever seen. In the familiar form of short dialogues, all the rules of composition are stated with a clearness and conciseness truly astonishing.

36.—*First Lessons in Political Economy, for the Use of Schools and Families.* By JOHN MCVICKAR, D. D., Professor of Political Economy, Columbia College, New York. New York: Saxton & Miles.

Dr. McVickar has, in this little treatise, rendered the first principles of an apparently dry science, so familiar and agreeable, that they can scarcely fail to interest the youngest student. It is just the book that our merchants, who intend to educate their sons for the commercial calling, should put into their hands.

THE

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Established July, 1839,

BY FREEMAN HUNT, EDITOR AND PROPRIETOR.

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HUNT'S

# MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE.

MARCH, 1846.

## Art. I.—BANKS AND BANK DIRECTORS.

A PRACTICAL VIEW OF THE MANAGEMENT OF BANKS, AND THE DUTY OF DIRECTORS.*

I PROPOSE to address you this evening on the subject of that portion of the common business of life that is managed through banks. It is not my intention to go learnedly into their origin and history, or to attempt any grave speculations in political economy concerning the effects of banking on affairs of state. My object is rather to present a plain view of its practical operation, so that those who hear me may carry away with them a clear conception of what ought to be done by banks, and some aid in judging whether it is done. I infer that information of this nature may be generally useful, from having observed that many persons receive any short statement of the actual process of this business as if it were new to them; and that even learned men, who sit in halls of legislation to make laws for the management of banks, sometimes say and do things which they would themselves declare to be preposterous, if they had the practical experience of a single month in conducting one. I was once present in a distant part of the Union, when a man, distinguished for eloquence in the last Congress, at Washington, rose in the legislature of his native state, and denounced some of his own constituents in severe terms for placing a certain bank in a position, which, from his own statement, was clearly a very sound and proper position, although he did not know it until a few well-known principles were explained to him, when he readily retracted. There have been instances, too, among our own legislators, of similar injustice, without the like admission of error.

There are, doubtless, some persons present here, who know already all that I can say upon the subject. I crave their indulgence, while describing what may be familiar to them; but what will have the interest of

* The present article was delivered, during the last season, as a lecture before the Mercantile Library Association of Boston, by Thomas G. Cary, Esq., and is now first published in the Merchants' Magazine from the manuscript copy politely furnished by the author.

novelty to others, who are, perhaps, to become bank directors and legislators, and who will apprehend more readily what they may hereafter be called to undertake, from having borne in mind an outline of the matters on which they are to act.

I crave their patience, too, in behalf of another portion of the audience, the ladies, who always perceive readily what is clearly stated, and can comprehend all that need be said upon the subject as well as any of us. Their own interests are often involved in the management of the banks. They are sometimes depressed, too, by the sight of grave countenances at home when there is trouble at the banks; and they are occasionally doomed to listen to discussions by no means exhilarating, which would be less wearisome to them, if they understood enough of the leading points to form opinions for themselves on what is said in their presence.

Their opinions, too, often furnish useful suggestions, when proper information is placed within their reach. Some men have, perhaps, owed their escape from failure to conjugal advice; and many a one, probably, has suffered evils which he would have avoided, if he had furnished the inseparable partner of his fortunes with the intelligence necessary to enable her to see clearly what he was about. It is characteristic of human frailty in unburthening the heart to prefer a listener who is not likely to discover more of error than one chooses to disclose. Like skilful dealers in paintings, who are careful in choosing their lights, men often hold up the picture of their troubles in such view as shall give prominence to misfortune, and keep fault in the shade. As they often impose, in this way, upon themselves, so they are sometimes insensibly cautious not to draw forth counsels that might be salutary, because they are, for the moment, unwelcome. Thus they lose the best benefit of that tender regard, of those nice perceptions, and of that instinctive sense of right closely allied, as it is, to wisdom, which they might call to their aid when in perplexity and distress.

A bank is generally supposed to be a place where a great quantity of gold and silver is, or ought to be, kept locked up; and from which bills to a large amount are issued, to be kept in circulation and to represent that gold and silver lying in the vaults. This supposition is in a great measure a mistaken one, as I shall attempt to show.

Let us suppose that a hundred persons of those present here, contributing one thousand dollars each, should combine to establish a bank with a capital of one hundred thousand dollars. Their purpose is to lend the money at the legal rate of interest, 6 per cent, and they hope to receive 6 per cent for what they contribute; otherwise they would prefer to use their money in some other way.

But in order to divide 6 per cent every year, among themselves, they must contrive to earn that rate of interest on more than one hundred thousand dollars; for they have to pay the rent of their banking house and the salaries of a cashier and a clerk, or clerks. They have, likewise, to pay an annual tax to the state of 1 per cent, equal to one thousand dollars, for the privilege of banking. In order to divide six thousand dollars among themselves, then, they must earn what would amount to eight or nine thousand dollars, that the surplus may cover the expenses attending the transaction of the business; and instead of one hundred thousand dollars, they must, to do this, lend nearly one hundred and fifty thousand dollars.

Their proceedings are regulated by the laws of the land, and they who make the laws know that more than one hundred thousand dollars is to be

lent. The law only provides, in that particular, that the loans shall never at any one time exceed two hundred thousand dollars, or double the capital.

A board of directors and a president being chosen to decide upon the loans, and a cashier to make the loans, they commence the business with a hundred boxes, of one thousand silver dollars in each. Merchants and traders, who have sold goods on credit, apply for loans to meet their own immediate payments which are becoming due; and as security for the loans, they offer the promissory notes which they have taken from their own customers for the goods sold, putting their own names on the back, endorsing them as it is called, to make themselves, as well as the promissors, liable to the bank.

Let us suppose that on the first day, the directors should approve of loans to the extent of one-quarter of the capital, or twenty-five thousand dollars, on such promissory notes as would be payable in about four months.

The cashier would then proceed to pay out what passes as money for them, deducting two dollars, or thereabouts, on every hundred for the interest which is earned by the bank for one-third of the year. He would not use his silver dollars in paying out what is thus lent, but would give, instead, the bills of the bank, which are its promises to pay when called upon. Thus—

State of Massachusetts

No. 6475 A

The

President, Directors & Co. of

THE NEW ENGLAND BANK

Promise to Pay One Dollar on demand

to the Bearer. Boston, Jan. 1, 1844.

E. P. Clark, *Cash'r.* P. Marett, *Pres't.*

The borrowers would then use these bank bills in paying their debts or making new purchases; and as the bills pass into other banks, or into the hands of those who want hard money, for remittances to Europe or otherwise, they would be returned to the bank that issued them, and be redeemed by the silver dollars from the vaults, which would then be paid out.

Of course, in four or five days of such business, the whole capital of the bank would have been lent; and if the directors should stop there—if the bank bills for the money lent should have been all brought in, and all redeemed by paying out the silver dollars, there would be no specie left in the vault, except the two thousand dollars, deducted for interest. Yet the bank, after parting with the dollars, would be perfectly strong; no power on earth could break it; for all its debts would be paid, and no person would hold one of its bills to make a demand upon.

The cashier might lend the remaining two thousand dollars, and still the bank would stand firm, though every other bank in the country should fail; provided he should lend no more for three or four months, when the notes that he had taken from his borrowers would begin to fall due. As they are paid in, he would have money to lend again. And even if the promisers and endorsers should all fail to pay their notes, still the bank would not fail; for it would owe nobody, though the stockholders would lose their money. Supposing the notes to be punctually paid, however, as

they usually are, he would continue lending the money over and over again as it comes in. But, confining the loans to one hundred thousand dollars and the earnings, there would be but six thousand dollars earned at the end of the year; and deducting from this the expenses and the tax, there would be only four thousand dollars, or 4 per cent, left for the stockholders.

A bank that was managed with great caution was once very much in this position, when a friend of the cashier called upon him, and taking him aside, with a grave face, said, "I heard it asserted just now that you have not five thousand dollars left out of the one hundred thousand silver dollars that were lately paid into your new bank, and I hastened to tell you that you may show me your vaults, and give me the means to contradict the rumor."

"No," said the cashier, "the rumor is all true. What use do you suppose that I have for the silver?"

"Why, to meet the run upon your bank, which must certainly come when this state of your affairs is generally known," was the reply.

"Let the run come," said the cashier, "and by way of beginning it, do you go into the street, collect all of our bills that you can find, and bring them to me, and I promise to give you hard dollars for them."

After some time his friend returned to say that he had not been able to find any of the bills of that particular bank, excepting a solitary one for five dollars, for which the silver was immediately offered him.

"Just so," said the cashier, "almost all the bills that I have issued have already been sent in, and I have paid out the silver for them. But in doing so I have emptied most of those boxes of dollars. The money was given me to lend; and I have lent it for about four months. But I could not lend it and keep it too. I have, therefore, very little gold or silver in the vaults. So long as I have the small amount that is necessary to redeem the few bills that remain out, and the two thousand dollars which I have earned for the stockholders, I am easy. You may go back to the street, if you will, and defy the world to break our bank. We shall lend nothing more until the promissory notes that we have taken as security begin to fall due. As they are paid in, with hard dollars, or the bills of other banks, we shall have the means to lend money again."

If the matter has been clearly stated, it will be perceived that the cashier was perfectly right.

"But where then," it will be asked, "is money to come from for the tax of 1 per cent on the capital, and for the expenses of banking, if the stockholders expect to receive 6 per cent for themselves? How is the loan to be extended to one hundred and fifty thousand dollars on a capital of one hundred thousand dollars?"

It is in this way. The cashier reports to the directors that although he has issued bills for about one hundred thousand dollars, only seventy or eighty thousand dollars have been brought in, though some time has elapsed; and it is supposed that the remaining twenty or thirty thousand are in the pockets of people who want them for daily use as a circulating medium, preferring them to specie, for convenience, so long as they know that silver or gold can be had for them whenever required. It is inferred, then, that it will be safe to make short loans of fifteen or twenty thousand dollars more on the strength of this, in the belief that a similar amount of bills will always remain in circulation, which is usually the case.

Here the danger of any future trouble begins. The cashier likewise reports that large sums are left with him on deposit for safe keeping; and that, although large sums are daily taken out, yet so much is replaced by fresh deposits, that the amount left with him by depositors never, on any one day, falls below fifty thousand dollars. It is concluded, therefore, that it will be safe to lend twenty or thirty thousand dollars of this also on short loans.

Instead, then, of confining the loan to one hundred thousand dollars, it is extended to one hundred and thirty or one hundred and fifty thousand. And instead of receiving only six thousand dollars in a year for interest, the gains amount to eight thousand or nine thousand dollars, thus furnishing two or three thousand for the expenses of banking and for the tax to the government, besides leaving 6 per cent to be divided among the stockholders.

We have seen that while the bank confined its loans to the capital, it stood strong and could never fail, whatever might happen to its stockholders, or to the rest of the world. When it goes beyond that limit, it becomes exposed to the fluctuations of commerce. When they grow dangerous, the bank must be brought again, as speedily as possible, within the limit of safety, to the great inconvenience of borrowers, who find themselves deprived of its aid just at the time when it is most desirable.

If what is called a pressure for money should come, then, when the loan is extended to one hundred and fifty thousand dollars, if the bills that are in circulation should be gathered up in order to demand gold and silver from the bank for them; and the depositors, finding a want for all that they have, should begin to withdraw their deposits, the bank must curtail its loans. But how far must it curtail, and how soon can it be done? One hundred thousand dollars of the loan belongs to the bank; and, as we have seen, may always be kept lent out on interest. There need not, therefore, be any curtailment of that. Of the other fifty thousand dollars which the directors have ventured to lend on the strength of deposits and of circulation, the whole need not be called in. Unless the bank fails entirely, it is scarcely possible that there should ever come a time when there is not some money to be left in the banks on deposit, or when some bills are not absolutely required for circulation; and some of the bills are likely to have been lost or destroyed, so that they can never come back. If we suppose the loan to have been reduced as notes are paid in, by thus retaining thirty thousand out of this fifty thousand, so that the bank owes only about one hundred and twenty thousand dollars, we shall have as great a reduction as takes place, usually, in times of great scarcity. And how soon can this reduction be made? I have spoken of the notes taken for the loans as having four months to run. But that time is meant as an average. If the affairs of the bank are judiciously managed, the loans have been so divided in time that receipts are constantly coming in, and a due proportion of the notes are falling due in each month; so that in less than sixty days the regular receipts would probably amount to the sum required. If no new loans have been made during that time, the bank has then taken care of itself, as the directors are bound to see that it does, whatever may happen to themselves or others. It stands strong, and it may go on to lend again any of the money that it has to receive, as it comes in from the payment of other notes.

Thus it appears that the reduction in such cases is but one-fifth of the

loan, which does not seem to be a great proportion. But how does it affect the community? Money becomes more scarce—sometimes distressingly so; and people are variously affected according as their characters and circumstances vary. In general, however, business that is founded on hearty, cheerful industry, on accurate information, adequate capital, and hardy enterprise, moves on undisturbed. But among the speculative, who regard labor as drudgery, and suppose that by some breeze of good luck, they may glide away from all need of work, it is otherwise. With them the beautiful mirage of imaginary prosperity begins to vanish, and to disclose the iron-bound coast of bankruptcy; while the wind is heard rising that may drive the startled adventurer upon the rocks. What passes at such times leads one to take a new view of the well-known story of "the sultan and the shirt."

The sultan was afflicted with a grievous disorder, and had obtained no relief from those around him, when there arrived at his court a celebrated hakim of great learning and skill, to whom the sultan described his sufferings. "The case is a plain one," said the hakim, "and the remedy simple. It is only necessary to find a man who is perfectly happy, and to wear his shirt." The sultan ordered inquiry to be made, but no such man could be found in his dominions. He then set forth himself to continue the search in foreign lands. At length he succeeded in finding one who was entirely happy; but, unfortunately, the man had no shirt!

If the hakim had reversed his prescription, and the sultan had come among us in search of some person, who was perfectly *wretched*, what I have observed of life would have led me to recommend, that he should leave the beggars, and make close search in State-street, on the Exchange, some day when money is scarce, and the banks are rapidly curtailing their loans.

From this outline of the ordinary course of the business, it is obvious, that a bank is not, as is often supposed, a place where a great deal of coined money is kept locked up; nor is it necessary that it should be so. Neither is it true that the bank bills, which are usually in circulation, represent just the same amount of gold and silver lying in the vaults. They rather represent the means which the bank has of obtaining gold and silver whenever it becomes necessary to redeem its bills. Those means consist of bills of other banks, left by depositors, and notes of hand falling due from day to day. Some hard money is required, of course, that the bank may be ready to meet promptly any demand that arises. But it is found in practice that an amount equal to one-tenth of the capital, is an ample reserve for any emergency that is likely to arise, if the business is managed with ordinary caution.

It appears, too, that by thus combining the property of numerous individuals, a new creation of property springs out of it. While the small sums which people have to invest in bank shares can be more conveniently lent in large sums; even those sums which they could not venture to lend at all, their deposits for immediate use, are made the basis of loans, by taking the average of what the whole community keep on hand from day to day as deposits. And further, the trifling sums which they carry in their pockets for circulation are also made the basis of large loans. In this way, while the capital of all the banks in this state is but thirty millions, the public are accommodated with loans from it to the extent of forty or forty-five millions of dollars. It is moderate to say that this has led to

an increase of population in the whole country, equal at least to half a million of persons, who have gradually been brought into existence to subsist on the use of capital that grows out of this extension of loans.

If our government should change their policy, and abolish banks, there would be trouble in consequence, until this additional population should be starved out of existence again, or crowded into new modes of life. We have had some lessons of this sort in the last ten years, and may soon have others of like nature from changes now projected.

There are some other considerations, arising from the view that has been presented, which deserve notice.

One point of great importance that must be obvious, (or would be so on a little reflection,) is, that the bank must be kept in a state that will admit of the ready contraction or expansion of its loans. There must be elasticity throughout the whole mass of its securities and means.

If the directors of the bank that I have described were to say, "this capital, this one hundred thousand dollars, at any rate, belongs to the bank, we may lend this as we like, provided the security be only good;" and if they were to act accordingly, and to lend this money by mortgage on the security of houses and lands for a term of four years, instead of four months, and then proceed to lend fifty thousand dollars more on the circulation and deposits as I have mentioned, what would follow when there comes a pressure, and they find it necessary to reduce the loan from one hundred and fifty thousand to one hundred and twenty thousand dollars? Where is the thirty thousand dollars to come from then? They want to place the bank in a safe condition within thirty or sixty days, by keeping the money that is paid in during that time, and lending nothing. But two-thirds of their funds are placed where they could not be recalled, probably, under two or three years; and to make the bank easy by receipts that are to be derived only from the other third, would take three times as long as if they had lent all the money only on notes that had but four months to run.

Such delay might cause the ruin of a bank; and it probably did compel one in Boston to stop its business and close its affairs. A few years since, it was reported that a certain land company, after selling a great number of lots for building in this vicinity, on long credit, and taking mortgages for most of the purchase money, had then made a negotiation, by which it was agreed that one of the banks here should take those mortgages as security for the loan of the greater part of its own capital. A man of some experience as a director, remarked, on learning this, that if the report was true, that bank would probably fail. And within eighteen months it was found to be insolvent; at a time, too, when all the banks, owing to peculiar circumstances, were receiving great indulgence from the community in regard to their liabilities.

A bank that ceases to preserve this elasticity, this power of contracting or expanding its loans at short notice, can never issue bills with safety.

The banks for savings lend money on long mortgages, but they issue no bills. No other banks can gather up claims upon them in order to demand gold and silver. Nobody can come upon them but their own depositors. They can only call for payment in moderate sums; and they rarely want them, if they can only be satisfied that the trustees of the savings banks have good mortgages to show for their deposits.

Another eminent instance may be adduced, to show how fatal an error

it is for a bank that issues bills to lend largely on long securities that will not yield the money promptly when it is wanted.

When the last national bank that has existed in this country was brought to a close in 1836, with a capital of thirty-five millions of dollars, belonging chiefly to foreigners, the president, Mr. Biddle, had obtained a charter from the state of Pennsylvania for a similar bank, so far as a state could make one, with the same amount of capital, and using the same name, "the Bank of the United States." Of course, the state could not give the peculiar privileges that belong to a national institution. But all defects were overlooked in the desire to retain so much capital for banking. Most of the stockholders in the national bank consented to transfer their property to this new Pennsylvania bank.

Those who preferred to receive their money back, easily obtained it, and more, by the sale of their shares. All of them might have received back from the bank that was then closed, all that they had ever invested, if they had decided to do so. No investigations or developments, that have been made since, have furnished any reason to believe that there was a deficiency in the funds of the National Bank of the United States; and it may be asserted with confidence that no *national* bank has ever failed in this country.

But the new bank, that of the state, was found to be an imperfect substitute for the other. The capital could not be used as it had been, and was applied to new purposes. It was lent on long loans. The securities were injudiciously and improperly chosen, surprisingly so; and the failure of this Pennsylvania bank, as is well known, has been so complete that the shares are almost totally worthless. But, bad as the securities were, the wreck could not have been so entire, there would have been something left for the stockholders, if Mr. Biddle had not combined these permanent investments with the liabilities of a bank that issues bills. Having borrowed money in Europe to meet the engagements of the bank, and continue its operations, he was obliged, for instance, to pledge as security large amounts of state stocks, payable in ten or twenty years, which he had taken in place of merchants' notes. And these pledges not being seasonably redeemed, the right to sell them was enforced by the lenders, at a time when state stocks had fallen into discredit; and the loss upon them was enormous. Could the sale have been deferred until the states should make arrangements to resume their payments, the stockholders, who now get almost literally nothing, might, perhaps, eventually secure a third or a half of their property.

The bank in Boston which I have just mentioned as burthened with long mortgages, very soon ceased, either through wisdom or necessity, to lend money. Its affairs were slowly wound up, and its stockholders have since received more than nine-tenths of their capital. Yet it would be easy to show, by stating particulars, that if the bank had attempted to go on by borrowing money, and been compelled to sell its mortgages when depressed, as they were at one time, the stockholders would, like those in Mr. Biddle's bank, have received nothing.

It will appear, from this view of the subject, why it is that none of the advantages have been realized which were anticipated from the laws that have authorized "free banking," as it is called, in several of the states. In New York, and elsewhere, authority has been given for any set of men who place stocks, bonds, and mortgages, in the hands of the comptroller

of the state, to issue bank bills for circulation, in due proportion to the value of such securities, the comptroller having the power to sell the stocks, &c., whenever the banking association fails to redeem the bills with hard money; for which latter purpose, a certain amount of specie is to be kept constantly on hand. A banking company founded on such principles finds itself at once in the condition of a bank that has put out most of its capital on long loans. Having but little money coming in, the moment its specie is used up, it must come to a dead stop, and can lend nothing more without borrowing, itself. The only positive result of such laws appears to be, that any set of men, who choose to establish a bank, by paying in the capital in the usual way, may do so, and go forward at once, without asking for a special charter.

The proper securities, then, for a bank to hold, are commercial notes and bills falling due within a short period; what is called business paper. Thus, when the man who applies for a loan offers the note of another person, to whom he has been willing to sell merchandise on credit to the amount of the note, the directors know that he, who has a strong interest to ascertain the truth, believes that the promiser can pay his debts. The note is founded on a real transaction in business, and if their own judgment coincides as to the standing of both parties, they are usually glad to lend money on such paper, if payable within a few months. One or the other of the parties may fail before the note will fall due. But it is found in practice to be highly improbable that both will fail within that time, unless there be some closer connection between them than appears.

But if the directors see reason to believe that the note was not in truth given for the purchase of goods, that it was just made for the occasion, because the rules of the bank require two names; and, therefore, that it is not to be paid by the party who signs it, but by the one who endorses it, then the directors regard it as accommodation paper, and receive it with more caution. Such paper is usually avoided, as an indication of weakness among business men, and is rarely taken by bank directors unless its true history be disclosed, and one of the parties, at least, be particularly deserving of credit.

Constant practice gives the directors considerable skill in forming judgments on matters of this nature, as may be inferred from the infrequency of losses by failures to banks that are well managed, even when individual merchants lose largely. Numerous instances might be adduced to prove this. I take the most convenient one, the result in this respect of ten years of business in the bank with the management of which I have been myself connected since the year 1832. Its capital is five hundred thousand dollars. Being lent on an average which rarely exceeds four months, it is paid and lent out again as often as three times in a year. This would make a million and a half of dollars lent; but if we add the loans that are made beyond the capital on the deposits and bills in circulation, the whole amount of loans would exceed two millions annually. At the expiration of ten years, then, from 1832 to 1842, the bank had lent at least twenty millions of dollars, chiefly upon such securities as I have described. During that period, which was one of severe trials and failures in the commercial world, the total losses of this bank were four thousand one hundred dollars. Of this sum, about two thousand dollars were lost by the failure of another bank, whose bills it held. Two thousand dollars were lost by the forgery of a note that was proved not to have been signed by

the man whose name was affixed. And only seventy-three dollars had been lost in the whole ten years by any error of judgment in the directors, as to the solvency of the parties they meant to trust.

The laws that have been made for the regulation of banks present another subject for passing attention. When a bank fails, the injury done is felt, usually, by so large a portion of the community, that it is quite natural that general indignation should be excited. The conclusion that is immediately arrived at is, as in most other cases, where wrong has been done, that somebody ought to be punished for it; and many people are more zealous to see the punishment inflicted at any rate, than they are scrupulous to ascertain that those who are to suffer it are really those who deserve it. The directors, and the stockholders who appoint them, are immediately looked upon as culprits, and there is an outcry for laws that shall inflict condign punishment on all directors and stockholders for any such mischief in future.

It is said that, at one time, assassinations in the streets of Venice had become so common, that laws of unusual severity were thought to be necessary; and orders were given to arrest all persons, whoever they might be, that should be found near the spot where the life of any one had been attempted. The consequence was, that, whenever a man had been stabbed, every one near him fled directly, and the wretched victim was left weltering in his blood, without assistance from any one, until police-officers should chance to pass; and instead of securing somebody to punish, they could no longer obtain even testimony of the facts. One is reminded of this in reflecting on the laws that have been projected in relation to banks.

About fifteen years since, during a period of great hostility to the banks in the state of New York, where I then resided, a law was framed imposing heavy pecuniary penalties upon directors, and even subjecting them to fine and imprisonment in cases of apparent delinquency. The plan was no sooner made generally known than it was abandoned; for the legislators at Albany found that most of the bank directors in the state, whose services were of real value, were preparing to resign on the passage of the law, leaving the management of the banks in the hands of such men as were most likely to produce the very evils which it was their design to prevent.

However scrupulous a director may be in the discharge of his duty, it is impossible for him to answer for the conduct of those with whom he is associated, unless he should give up his own business, and pass the day in the bank. Penalties, too, have but little terror for those who are not restrained by other considerations, and the hope of evasion usually predominates over fear.

Under the laws of this state, the stockholder, who loses all that he has in the bank, in case of its failure to pay its debts, is made still further liable for those debts, to the extent of a sum equal to his shares. The stockholder may be a woman or an invalid, but is still regarded in the light almost of a culprit, and must lose double his investment. The consequence is a growing indisposition among men of large property to invest money in banks. Those who cannot be induced, by the danger of losing what they invest in a bank, to see personally to the management of its affairs, are not to be compelled to the task by doubling the risk of loss. They rather become careful to put little, generally, at risk, in one bank, and the community gains no security by the change.

Very lately a law was passed in this state making it penal to pay a dividend of profits, without such a rigid and laborious examination into the affairs of each bank by a committee of stockholders, that scarcely any stockholder could be induced to undertake the task; and the law was repealed when it had been found impossible to enforce it. It is obvious that until some more certain mode of application can be discovered, laws of a penal character may produce an effect directly the reverse of what is intended.

One plan has been attempted which certainly seems calculated to check any tendency to mismanagement. It is the appointment of three commissioners whose duty it should be to examine the books, papers, cash, and notes of every bank in the commonwealth, whenever they think fit; with the right to stop its business whenever they see cause. Such commissioners unquestionably would have the power to ascertain the true condition of a bank far better than any one of its directors could do it. The mass of information which they can gain, in examining one bank after another continually, must be such that no gross mismanagement could escape their searching investigations, if properly made.

A small part of the capital might be misused without their discovering it, but not such a part that the community could be in danger, though the stockholders might suffer. But the commissioners should be men deserving of confidence in every way. They should be perfectly independent, under no temptation to borrow themselves, but withdrawn from any private business that could even distract attention from their duties. They should be, too, sagacious and honest, with considerable experience. Such men, in a community like this, are very likely to earn from four to five thousand dollars a year, or more, in the usual branches of business; and are not likely to leave their homes and travel about the commonwealth in discharging laborious and important duties for a paltry salary.

A law was passed providing for such commissioners in Massachusetts, and the question arose, what should be their pay? What could the commonwealth afford to give for the purpose? Its interest in the subject, besides security to the people from a bad currency, may be estimated by its receipts for the last year. The whole amount of regular income paid into the treasury of the state for the year 1844, was three hundred and seventy-seven thousand dollars, and of this sum the banks paid three hundred and five thousand dollars, as the tax that I have mentioned, imposed for the privilege of banking. The banks were sustaining, then, more than four-fifths of all the expenses of our state government. Their only means of paying this tax are, as I have explained, and as is well known to the legislature, by extending their loans beyond their capital; and yet, when men were to be selected, to act as a safeguard over thirty millions of money, in order to secure the currency of the community, the income of the state, and the interests of the widows and orphans whose property is invested in bank shares, the salaries of these men were fixed at fifteen hundred dollars each! The consequence was, that the place and business of these commissioners eventually fell into the hands of such men as would accept the office, rather than of those who were particularly suited, by their previous habits of business, to perform the duties. The most active of the three was, in truth, embarrassed in his private affairs, anxious to borrow where he could, and prevented by troubles of his own from giving undivided attention to duties that required unceasing watch-

fulness. At length, a bank in a neighboring town, to which he had shortly before given a superficial examination, placing too great confidence in the assurances of its officers, was found to be ruinously insolvent, without any intimation of the fact from the commissioners. It was then inferred that they were useless, and the law was denounced and abolished as a failure. Yet the commissioners had done good. There is reason to believe that their supervision had prevented great mischief, which will never be generally known, because it was prevented. The law was good in the main; and its great defect arose from that mischievous species of economy in salaries, that, in the present day, is made to ring in the ears of the people for political effect. The duties of a commissioner require his whole time, for nothing should be taken upon trust from the character of bank officers, however high. Every point should be verified by personal examination.

In speaking of the necessity that sometimes exists for curtailing the liabilities of a bank in order to insure its safety, we have alluded only to such difficulties as arise from ordinary fluctuations in business. It may be of use to consider for a moment a case of extraordinary character, such as arose here in the year 1837, when all the banks together suspended their payments of gold and silver for their own bills. I say all the banks; for though it is asserted of two or three that they never did actually suspend, it was because they were in remote places, and were not called upon until an easy standard of payments had been generally established, in which the community acquiesced.

In reverting to that period, it is of some interest to inquire what would have actually been the consequences to any one bank in this city; for instance, if the directors had resolutely determined not to refuse the payment of gold and silver until they had parted with all that they had in their vaults, and all that they could have obtained by any means in their possession.

The bank that we have described, with a capital of one hundred thousand dollars, lending usually one hundred and fifty thousand dollars, was supposed, just now, to have reduced its loan, in a time of pressure, to one hundred and twenty thousand. It was then very much in the position of most of our banks here, when news arrived from New York, one day, just after the close of business, that all the banks there had suspended their payments; and it was known that brokers had arrived with large amounts of Boston bills, and were waiting to present them, as soon as the banks should open the next morning, with a demand for hard money, which stood at a premium of ten or twelve per cent, over the bills of banks that no longer paid in silver.

Our little bank would probably have been likely to have about twenty-five thousand dollars of its bills in circulation at that time; of which, twenty thousand might be gathered up at once for demand. In those times, the deposits were necessarily reduced, as people had less money than usual to keep on hand. We will suppose them reduced to thirty-five thousand. Many of the depositors would call for their money in gold and silver, for the sake of the premium which it then bore. But they would not all withdraw their money, because there are always some who do not avail themselves of such changes; and who would only want to be assured that, whenever they should call for their deposits, they would be paid them in what was equal to gold and silver.

These deposits, then, like the bills of the bank, would be worth the

same premium as hard money, in comparison with those of suspending banks. We may suppose that twenty-five thonsand of the deposits would be withdrawn. This, with the bills brought in, would make forty-five thousand dollars to be paid out in gold and silver, the next morning; and the bank would have about five thousand or six thousand on hand in specie to begin with; leaving about forty thousand to be raised. That must have been done by selecting some of the best notes, and pledging them for a loan of forty thousand silver dollars. There was no difficulty in finding the dollars; for as soon as the banks in New York suspended, they ceased to want them; and what were there would come here, or go anywhere else, for the premium of ten or twelve per cent. But the rate of interest was very high. The bank must have borrowed these dollars for at least two months, at two or three times the rate of the ordinary interest. The premium for the dollars would have been four thousand eight hundred dollars, and the interest twelve hundred; making six thousand in the whole; which does not seem to be a great price to pay for the satisfaction of entire solvency, especially when it is remembered that great advantages would have grown out of that solvency in the fresh deposits, and extended circulation that would have followed, as soon as it was known that those who had deposited what was equal to gold, should always receive the same, and that the bills could always be paid when presented.

But the banks that meant thus to pay specie, must have ceased to lend, in order to stand firm; no man could expect to borrow a dollar from them for two or three months. The banks that gave way, could lend nothing that would be of use in making payments, where gold continued to be the standard; for their bills were discredited. If all aid from banks were thus withdrawn, how could people pay their debts, since business men habitually rely on the readiness of banks to lend? How would the bank, itself, have repaid that loan of forty thousand? It could only be from those notes which it had pledged, or others that were falling due. But would the promisers have been able to pay those notes? At that time, failures were so numerous, that those who had borrowed money from the banks, on notes taken for merchandise sold, were apt to find, when the notes fell due, that their customers were unable to pay them; and that they had themselves to refund the money to the banks, as well as to provide for their own debts. The banks, therefore, doubted whether the notes in which most of their funds were invested, would be paid.

Here we touch the true difficulty of the case. It appeared to be a struggle between the banks and the merchants, which should fail. What would have been the result, if the banks had held out for another month, remains a matter of speculation. It was feared that the merchants who were indebted to the banks would have failed, generally, and that, then, the failure of the banks would have followed. The banks acted on this belief, and gave way. Their debtors then had the advantage of paying by common consent, in depreciated currency, which could easily be had; and the merchants were relieved.

It is obvious, however, from what has been said, that if a bank has been well managed, its suspension need not follow, merely from the fact that all those near it have failed to pay gold and silver. Its solvency may be maintained without ruinous cost, and it will have the distinction of preserving in its bills the true standard of value, for the reference of the community.

Some persons still believe that the banks yielded unnecessarily in the

instance mentioned; and that if they had stood firm, the consequences would not have been so disastrous as was apprehended. They suppose that the decision might have been different, too, had it not been that most of the bank directors were themselves merchants; a fact, from which they infer that the two sides of this contest were not maintained with equal vigor.

It would certainly be advisable that bank directors should be men of property, retired from business, who never wish to borrow money. But this cannot be. Such men can but rarely be induced to trouble themselves with engagements of this nature, and the duty of lending from the bank is left to be performed, in most cases, by those who are borrowers themselves. I believe the duty to be discharged, in the main, with great fairness; and that the banks generally receive benefits from their directors, in procuring them the best selection of paper, greater than they confer by any loans.

But, as we know, there are melancholy instances of breach of trust in this relation; and we cannot reflect without grief on the misfortunes of those who have suffered in such cases. With the exception that active men of business are borrowers, they are best fitted to manage the affairs of a bank. They know everybody, and understand what is going on. If they have no improper purposes of their own, they are invaluable; and a large portion of them are proved to be so. The chief danger that they may prove otherwise, arises from the same sources in which originate a large portion of the evils of corruption, wherever they exist. A man of common sense, and ordinary firmness, who has so much of honesty and self-respect, that he would ask nothing improper for himself, nor accept it if it were offered, will hardly stand passively as a bank director, and allow any proceeding to pass without rebuke, that would betray the interests of the stockholders, for whom he acts. His mere presence is generally sufficient to prevent the attempt of it; for in banks, as everywhere else, fraud and vice are awed by the approach of integrity and virtue, just as reptiles retire from any opening that admits the light of day into the den of their retreat. There is sometimes found in a board of directors, or any assemblage of men, just so much virtue and sense of right, that a majority of them will follow the lead of any man, who has integrity and resolution sufficient to take the first step in opposition to wrong, although the rest would fail to originate the movement themselves. This, perhaps, is the most common state of parties in all human affairs.

But when a man has once yielded to considerations of personal expediency, and taken for himself what the dictates of justice would impel him to refuse to a fellow creditor, then he must silence the dictates of justice, and give way to the wishes of others. Then begins that system of mutual concession, from which corruptions usually arise. It is subtle and insinuating, active in mischief, but scarcely perceived. The human heart is, as it was of yore, deceitful above all things; and a specious sophistry is at work within to palliate and justify what would be promptly condemned, if the interest that is to be promoted were removed. "Do this for me, and I will overlook that in you," is language that would express the motives for much of the wrong that is supposed to exist in all public affairs, as well as in private morals. But it is not so often conveyed in utterance, as in the feebleness of opposition, in the apologetic tone, and the significant glance of the eye, which binds the tacit agreement for mutual sup-

port. Observers frequently fail to perceive it, and the heart of the actor in this conspiracy against justice, blinded by self-interest, refuses to acknowledge it. But the complexion of society betrays the effect in the hideous contortions that we sometimes see on its face.

About fifteen years before the commencement of the French revolution, the celebrated Turgot, in compliance with the wishes of the nation, was called to the administration of financial affairs in France; and on assuming the duties of his office, he addressed a letter to the king, in which he recapitulates the principles on which he intended to act, in order to avert the frightful dangers which he saw impending. He reminds his majesty of the royal promise which had induced him to venture on such fearful responsibility as was before him; the promise that the king would resolutely sustain him by enforcing the measures that might be found necessary to carry into effect those principles, which, it was agreed between them, were required for the safety of the kingdom. There was to be no future failure to meet public engagements. There was to be no increase of duties or taxes; and yet, there were to be no more loans. The whole basis of the change proposed was to be economy and retrenchment, with relief to the people from the exactions of personal labor for public purposes. Economy was to come first; for he foresaw that the opposition of those who were entitled to prevent the reform of abuses, and their manœuvres to thwart his designs would lead, probably, to a temporary diminution of revenue. In touching language, he implored the protection of the king against his own too easy nature, that yielded so readily to the wishes of those around him, and which might be startled by the clamors that were about to be raised by those who lived upon the sufferings of the people. "I feel," he says, "that you have confided to me the happiness of your subjects, and if I may say so, the charge of making your person and your authority beloved; but, at the same time, I perceive all the dangers to which I expose myself. I have already foreseen that I should have to combat alone against the abuses of the whole age; against the efforts of those who gain by those abuses; against the crowd of prejudices that are opposed to all reform, and which are means so powerful in the hands of those interested to perpetuate disorders. I shall have to struggle even against the generosity and kindness of your own heart, and of persons who are most dear to you. I shall be feared—hated, even, by the greatest part of the court, by all that portion who solicit favors; for all refusals will be imputed to me. I shall be painted as a hard man, because I shall have represented to your majesty that you ought not to enrich even those whom you love, at the expense of the subsistence of your people. That same people, for whom I shall be sacrificing myself, are so easily deceived that perhaps I shall incur their hatred by the very measures which I shall employ to defend them from oppressions. I shall be calumniated, and perhaps with such an appearance of truth as to deprive me of your confidence. I should not regret to lose a place which I have never sought. I am ready to resign it to your majesty, whenever I can no longer hope to be useful. But your esteem, my own character for integrity, the goodwill of the nation, which have determined your choice in my favor, are dearer to me than life; and I incur the risk of losing them even in shunning cause for self-condemnation.

"Your majesty will remember that it is upon the faith of your promises, that I burthen myself with a load that perhaps is too great for my own

strength; but it is on you personally, on the honest man, on the just and good man, rather than on the king, that I place my reliance."

He entered on his administration, and improvement commenced. He told the king that in ten years France would hardly be known for what she had been. But while he was guiding the affairs of the nation in the only course that could possibly insure its safety, the nobles, the courtiers, the priests, the financiers, the merchants who had purchased monopolies from the government, down to the very porters whom they employed, joined in one general outcry, to drive him from his post. His colleague withdrew disheartened. But Turgot persisted, inflexible and undismayed, showing that it was still possible to avert that terrible catastrophe which every month was hastening on, until the fearful combination that had been formed against him prevailed; and he was dismissed, to the joy of the corrupt, and to the sorrow of the oppressed.

It has been well said by a British writer, that "while the courtiers of Louis XVI. drove from his councils the most upright and patriotic of his ministers, in the belief that they were sacrificing the welfare of millions to their own particular interests, they, in truth, were dooming themselves to the block, their families to ruin and exile, their order to extermination, their country to anarchy, and Europe to the sanguinary and furious war, compared with which, all the rest that have disfigured her annals, are as the sports of children; and when the king signed the order for his dismission, he signed his own death-warrant. France has, at length, succeeded in obtaining those advantages which were proposed by Turgot; but it has been after passing through an ocean of blood."*

This may seem to be rather a strong case to present in illustration of the subject that we have been considering. But strong cases serve to show most clearly what are the tendencies of our actions. Although on a smaller scale, there is tendency to mischief of the same nature, when bank directors, for the sake of temporary accommodation, first expose themselves to the temptation of sacrificing the interest of stockholders to their own convenience. It is the same in all private and all public affairs. While it would be difficult to attain the assent of the community to the existence of any one evil custom by itself, a host of evils may be tolerated by a force of mutual concession and support. The passage of one bad law is often effected only by an appeal to the desire for some other law that is itself objectionable. Thus bad legislation prevails in opposition to the real will of the majority, because that will is stifled by bargaining among those who, perhaps, do not mean to be corrupt, but who scarcely reflect on the consequences of what they do.

The complaint of Turgot may be repeated, too, among us. "That very people whose welfare has been sought in framing the laws of the land, are so easily deceived, that they are in constant danger of being incited through artful misrepresentations, to turn against the regulations on which their own happiness and advancement depends."

We are a part of that people, and each of us are in some degree responsible for the correct decision of the whole. We are answerable for the use that we make of our influence on the mass, and for our neglect to use it. If we suffer improper purposes of our own to affect the zeal with which we should advocate what is right, or the energy with which we

* Westminster Review, March, 1845.

should oppose what is wrong, we are but following in the steps of those who defended corruption in France.

But to be firm, we must be independent; and to secure independence, as in the plan of Turgot, we must begin with economy, industry, and moderation in our wants. If there had been no combination for the mutual support of corruptions in France; and if the correction of one abuse could have been urged without impediments from influence founded on other abuses, so that each might have been removed singly, what distress and loss would have been avoided.

We may repose so much faith in our present system of government, as to believe that we are in no danger of any immediate convulsion. But every act of injustice, or breach of good faith, every instance in which we participate in wrong of any sort, or even suffer it to pass without rebuke, goes to swell the tide of corruption that may one day sweep away the institutions under which we now live in happiness.

While, on the other hand, by the courageous integrity that breathes forth in the carriage of the upright, by every sacrifice, however secret, that we make of interest to strengthen our principle, and every example that our lives afford of the beauty of virtue, and the power of the religion that has been revealed to us, we aid in forming the barriers that are necessary to render our frame of government perpetual.

## Art. II.—MEANS OF INCREASING OUR COMMERCE WITH GERMANY.

MEASURES for increasing the direct commerce of Germany with other countries, and especially with the United States of America, are among the principal objects of the Zollverein; and are also worthy of the serious attention of the people and statesmen of this country.

Towards the end of the session of the Commercial Congress, held during the last year by the Representatives of the Zollverein States at Carlsruhe, Prussia proposed "the adoption of a joint navigation act on the part of the Zollverein States, the Hanse Towns, and other small coast states, to establish a national flag, granting to those states which are willing to act upon the principle of full reciprocity equal commercial rights under that flag; and advocated the enactment of a general law, by which differential duties, or in other words, a reduction of duties should be granted on those products from foreign countries, which were imported in vessels sailing under that flag, and on foreign articles imported in the vessels of those countries who would establish similar differential duties in favor of the products and vessels of these German States. To such vessels the said advantages would be given in all ports of the Zollverein, and of the other states between the Schelde and Elbe, both included, provided it appears from the papers of the vessels that the goods are brought directly from the country which produces them, in those vessels, to the states which unite in this measure."

The representatives of the Zollverein will act upon it during their session of this winter at Berlin. Public opinion in the German States has already declared itself so loudly in favor of this measure that its adoption appears insured.

Under the protection of a common flag, merchants and capitalists of the

interior of Germany will be enabled to enter more freely into the transatlantic trade; enjoying, together with the Hanse Towns, that carrying trade as a direct one, which is now done in an indirect way by England and other European nations. Many merchants of the interior of Germany will probably not only use the ports of the Zollverein on the Baltic, and the ports of Belgium, which has concluded a treaty with the Zollverein, but also most of all the ports of Hamburg and Bremen as their entrepots. From these ports they will send their goods in smaller ships by the safe and free navigation of the Elbe or Weser, or by railroad into the interior. This will concentrate a greater amount of business in Hamburg and Bremen. They will rise the same as the American seaport cities have risen, in proportion as railroads and steamboats have there created and facilitated business and travelling. It would be strange, if with these striking examples, which the American seaports afford, before their eyes, the people of Hamburg and Brèmen should not favor every measure, which, besides increasing their own shipping, would concentrate a great deal of the business and shipping of the Zollverein in their ports. The Hanse Towns and the Zollverein States ought to feel a deep interest in their mutual welfare. The increasing import and export trade of the ports of Hamburg and Bremen is as beneficial for them as for the Zollverein. They ought to proceed upon the principle, that as all Germans have in common, origin, wants and literature, they must have common interests, a common commerce, and a common future. Negotiations for this purpose, especially for the adoption of the above named measure, have been commenced between the Hanse Towns and the Zollverein, which seem to promise a favorable result.

Before enlarging further on the proposed measures, the position of Congress and existing treaties ought first to be considered. Several members of the House of Representatives are said to be unfavorable to any treaty of commerce, which would deprive the House of Representatives of the regulation of so much of the tariff. The apprehended disadvantage could easily be avoided, if the conclusion of a treaty should indeed be impracticable. It is in the power of the United States to pass an act of Congress, similar to that proposed by the Zollverein. The House of Representatives would thus co-operate with the Senate in laying down the basis on which the commercial intercourse with these countries should be carried on. All difficulties could be thus removed, and mutual advantages could be gained. This method appears to several gentlemen, as we understand, to be preferable to attaining the same object by treaty, because a law if found to operate disadvantageously to the country, may be repealed, while the treaty must subsist for the term fixed in itself. At the same time we believe that such a measure, whether framed in the shape of a law or a treaty, could not fail to operate advantageously for this country.

In answer to those who represent as an impediment to new treaties, that clause in most of the existing treaties of the United States with other countries, "promising them the same advantages as are enjoyed by the most favored nations," I would repeat what I have said in a previous article, that it does not appear to stand in the way; since all those countries can obtain the same advantages according to true reciprocity, provided they will grant to the United States similar profitable reductions on their tariff system, as the German States are willing to give. They could only justly complain in case the United States should refuse to extend to them a

similar reciprocity. What can this clause mean, if it does not mean, that in case of new treaties being formed with other nations, and advantages thereby given, nations in whose favor that clause exists may claim the same advantages, but only on the same condition. They can consequently only claim to be treated on the same footing, viz. to be allowed to give the same advantages in return for new favors granted. If other nations do not mean that for their profit the reciprocity ought to be all on one side, they can in fairness have no objection to this interpretation.

It is intended that the benefits of the above mentioned law shall extend to all those countries who will also by treaty or by law extend similar advantages to the importation from Germany into those countries. A similar treaty exists already between this country and the Hanse Towns, but it is limited to the vessels alone, while the plan of the Zollverein favors not only the vessels but the products of this country in a greater degree than heretofore. In advocating such means, the Zollverein States wish in no manner whatsoever to injure the Hanse Towns, but rather to advance their interests, as we have shown in an article in the February number of this Magazine, to which we refer.

It will be necessary to point out more fully some of the advantages which would result from the extension of direct commerce between the United States and Germany, and to enumerate some of the present disadvantages under which that trade is carried on.

The laws of most European countries, of England, France and Holland, for instance, favor very essentially their own shipping and their commerce with their colonies, treating unfavorably and impeding the shipping of other countries. They have frustrated a freer and more liberal intercourse among nations by their colonial policy—a policy founded on the idea of a restricted trade and monopolized intercourse between the mother country and the colony, to the exclusion of the rest of the world. There can be no real reciprocity between nations thus treating their colonies and other countries, and those nations who possess no colonies.

Germany has heretofore treated the vessels of all other countries very favorably, but she sees herself compelled by the restrictive commercial policy of some countries to grant reductions of duties only to those nations who are willing to favor her. She looks in this respect particularly to the United States of America, because they as well as Germany having no colonies to favor, possessing vast territory and millions of industrious inhabitants on both sides,* can mutually establish true and fair reciprocity, which other countries deny to both of them. They, therefore, have it in their power to establish a new, fair and firm commercial policy, as soon as they sincerely will it, and can thereby compel other countries to come to fairer terms with them.

It is the true policy of the United States, and of Germany, to hold out to other nations the offer of a truly reciprocal trade.

Other European countries have heretofore, by their commercial policy, succeeded in monopolizing a great part of the trade between the United States and Germany. They carry American goods either to their entrepots in England, Holland, &c., and from there to Germany, or carry them directly to the latter country. This trade could be carried on directly by German and American vessels; and it would be more profitable for both nations to use

* The States of the Zollverein contain about twenty-eight millions.

their own ships, than those of other nations. The freight from the United States, to England or Holland, is not lower than the freight to the German ports of the North sea, and only very little lower than to the ports of the Baltic. The combined freight of the United States to England, and from an English entrepot to a German port, is evidently higher than the freight of a direct shipment from the United States to a German port. When direct and unrestricted commerce between two countries is carried on by means of their own vessels, the exchange of their goods will give them equal profits—then, only, is it possible to maintain a firm commercial intercourse. Importation and exportation then support each other, particularly since the reduction of duties in favor of such a direct trade would insure profit, in preference to the indirect trade of other countries, and since ships used for this direct trade would not have to wait in port so long as heretofore for a cargo, and much would be saved thereby.

German manufacturers are at present compelled to buy a great deal of American raw material—for instance, cotton—in the English or other entrepots. If those goods from foreign countries were directly sent to Germany, a great market would be formed there. The demand of Germany for cotton, tobacco, sugar, coffee, rice, and so forth, being very large, and the additional expenses of commissions, agents, freight, &c., now paid in the English entrepots, then being saved, Germany could afford to buy greater quantities of foreign (particularly of American) goods. In illustration of the present trade of Germany with this country, we annex the following statement :—

STATEMENT OF THE COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES WITH THE ZOLLVEREIN OF GERMANY.

The principal articles of export from the United States to Germany, are : Tobacco, cotton, fish-oil, rice, sugar, pot and pearl ashes, whalebone, rosin, hops, quercitron bark, provisions, (beef and pork,) lead. These are all products of the United States. Besides these, there are exported from this country to Germany products of South America, East and West Indies, Mexico, and China ; namely, dye-woods, tea, cassia, pepper, pimento, cochineal, &c.

The principal ports of export of this country to Germany, are :—New York, which exports nearly all the above-named articles ; New Orleans, cotton, Kentucky tobacco, lead, provisions, and sugar ; Baltimore, chiefly Maryland tobacco, and some quercitron bark ; Richmond and Petersburgh, Va., tobacco and stems ; Charleston, cotton and rice ; New Bedford and Nantucket, Mass., and some other ports of less importance in Rhode Island, Connecticut, &c., fish oil ; Philadelphia and Boston, only a few cargoes, consisting of various articles ; Mobile and Savannah, cotton.

The principal ports of entry at the Zollverein, are Hamburg and Bremen ; but there are sent to Stettin from ten to fifteen cargoes of fish-oil and rice annually, and about two-thirds of the exports to Holland and Antwerp go from thence to the Zollverein.

To form a correct idea of the consumption of American products in the Zollverein States, it must be observed that much is also imported to Germany, via England and France.

EXPORTATIONS OF THE FOUR STAPLE ARTICLES FROM THE UNITED STATES TO THE ZOLLVEREIN, IN THE YEARS 1843 AND 1844.

| | 1843. | | 1844. | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Quantity. | Value. | Quantity. | Value. |
| Cotton, via Hamburgh,....bales* | 40,450 | $1,132,600 | 28,809 | $1,145,004 |
| " Bremen,..... | 20,053 | 561,484 | 12,084 | ..... |
| Tobacco, via Hamburg,.....hhds. | 1,448 | 60,816 | 3,975 | 159,000 |
| " " " ....bales† | ..... | ..... | 4,567 | 73,072 |
| " " Bremen,.....hhds. | 31,500 | 1,302,660 | 31,806 | 1,272,240 |
| Stems, " ..... | 3,960 | 99,000 | 4,844 | 106,568 |
| Fish-oil, " .....bbls. | 34,825 | 374,369 | 28,700 | 315,700 |
| " Hamburg,..... | 15,256 | 163,936 | 10,450 | 114,950 |
| " Stettin,..... | 33,350 | 358,512 | 13,800 | 151,800 |
| Rice, Bremen,.....tierces | 10,284 | 169,686 | 6,975 | 174,375 |
| " Hamburg,..... | 4,527 | 74,696 | 7,972 | 199,300 |
| " Stettin, ..... | 1,500 | 24,750 | 2,000 | 50,000 |
| Amount of the four principal articles of export to the Zollverein,..... | | $4,322,609 | | $3,762,009 |
| Add to this the value of the minor articles of exportation from the United States, which, according to competent authority, has been valued at one-fourth of the above sum,... | | 1,080,625 | | 966,302 |
| Whole amount of the direct exportation from the United States to the Zollverein,..... | | $5,403,234 | | $4,728,311 |
| In order to ascertain the whole value of American products consumed in the States of the Zollverein, there should be added, as before stated— | | | | |
| 1. Two-thirds of the exportations from the United States to Holland and Belgium, which, according to official statements, amounted in 1843 to $3,372,551, in 1844 to $5,626,975, is..... | | 2,248,367 | | 3,751,317 |
| | | $7,651,601 | | $8,479,628 |
| 2. The value of 1,500,000 a 2,000,000 bales of cotton, which are exported into England, there manufactured into twist, and as such exported via Hamburg to the States of the Zollverein,..... | | 4,900,000 | | 4,900,000 |
| Amount of the whole direct and indirect exportation from the United States to the Zollverein States,..... | | $12,551,601 | | $13,379,628 |

It will be observed that the *direct* importation of cotton, by way of Hamburg, has declined in proportion to the increased importation of that article by way of Holland and Belgium, in consequence of the last treaty between the Zollverein and Belgium, by which the transit of transatlantic products into Prussia has become free; but it is very probable that Bremen or Hamburg will become the great cotton market for not only the States of the Zollverein, but also of the empire of Austria, as soon as the direct commerce between the United States and Germany will be increased by the proposed measures. One of the Hanse Towns will then become, for Germany, what Liverpool is now for England. The great quantity of twist above mentioned could then be manufactured in Germany.

* At 400 lbs. nett, a $8 per bale.

† At 800 lbs., a $5 per 100 lbs.

It is impossible to ascertain the quantity of sugar exported from the south of the United States to Germany, as it is principally imported into Germany indirectly.

Experience shows that English, Hollandish, and other ships which carry American and other transatlantic goods to German ports, export from thence very rarely any manufactured goods, but instead of them only raw materials; for instance, wool, for their own manufactories; and they export from their own countries manufactured goods to the transatlantic ports. The reason of this course of trade, is not that the German manufactured articles are not equally good and cheap; but that the English find it more profitable for themselves to export their own manufactured goods, and to take in return merely the raw materials from other countries, in order to have the profit of the manufacture.

The following example may elucidate this position. England is dependent on Germany for wool, from which she manufactures those goods that constitute her principal articles of export to the United States; and she is dependent upon the United States for the cotton from which she manufactures the goods that constitute her most valuable exports to Germany. Germany herself manufactures woollen cloth, principally in Silesia, in Saxony, and in the Rhenish provinces of Prussia. German woollen cloths and cassimeres are faithfully made; their colors are very fast, and rival those of England, as those not only who use them in this country, but also American writers on this subject acknowledge.* But since Germany has little direct commerce with the transatlantic countries, and since the ships of England, France, and Holland, only import transatlantic goods into Germany, taking little or no manufactured goods in return, the German manufactories are compelled mostly to confine themselves to the home market.

All that has been said of the woollen cloths is also true of other German goods; for example, linen. The linen goods of Silesia and of Bielefeld are famous for their excellence, but they suffer under the same want of a free direct commerce with foreign countries, from whose markets England has almost entirely driven them away by favoring her own products. In proof that the causes alleged, and not inferior quality or high prices, have, been disadvantageous to German goods in foreign markets, reference may be had to Dr. Bowring's statements in the "Report of the select committee of the House of Commons on import duties, of 1840." He had been commissioned to report on the industry of Germany. In this report, (pages 5 and 6) it is impartially acknowledged that German goods are cheaper, and equal in quality to those produced in England and France. The abundance and high perfection of the raw materials produced in Germany for her manufactories, the ample and cheap food for the numerous and industrious population, whose labor is consequently cheap, the rapidly increasing facilities by railroads, are all contributing to increase her direct commerce with foreign nations. Since the United States manufacture none or very little linen, and woollen cloths in only a small quantity, linen and woollens would be among those articles on which a reduction of duty could be granted in return for a reduction of duty on American tobacco, sugar, rice, etc. Cotton is already free from all duty; breadstuffs have

* See an article by an American, dated Bremen, June 30, 1845, published in the Union at Washington, on the 20th September, 1845.

always found a market in Germany after short crops, as is the case at the present time. Germany thus offers a better market for the agriculturist of the United States than is commonly supposed. Other German articles, besides woollen cloths and linen, in whose favor differential duties could be established, would be merinos and merino shawls, silks, Rhenish, Neckar and Moselle wines, Cologne water, bronze wares, philosophical instruments, musical instruments, looking glasses, toys, etc. But I shall not venture to enumerate those articles, for I deem it of more importance to show, that reductions of duty could be made without injury to the industry of the United States, upon those goods which this country does not produce at all, or in insufficient quantities. Thus products could be exchanged for products.

Let us contrast a commerce to be carried on upon such a basis with our present trade with England. While England and some other nations continue to shut us out of their ports, by high duties on articles of which we have a surplus, we cannot without heavy loss import from those countries manufactured articles; for the high English duties reduce our profits.

The idea is erroneous that high duties add only to the price of the article to the consumer. American business men know very well that where sharp competition exists, the duties come chiefly out of the pocket of the producer, or the wages of his laborers, and that moreover those duties diminish the amount of production as the enhanced price lessens the demand in foreign markets.

It must finally be observed that there exists the following connection between the American currency and the English tariff. The practical operation of the high English tariff is, to drain other countries by an unequal trade of their specie, thereby weakening and endangering their banking system and paper currency, by depriving it of, or at least diminishing, that which is the only safe basis. It also compels other nations to pay a considerable part of the interest of the national debt, and of the expenses of the government of England.

We cannot have a safe banking system so long as we permit the basis of our currency to be withdrawn or drained from the country by such a monopolizing trade. If this question was submitted to the experienced and intelligent bankers of both political parties of this country, they would come to the same conclusion. A provision was introduced into the charter of the Bank of England, under the government of Sir Robert Peel, in pursuance of which the circulation of that bank must be diminished in the same proportion as specie is drawn from its vaults. If such a provision was applied to our banks we should soon find that on account of our large and irregular shipments of specie to England, our paper currency would become very vacillating. This shows how unsafe and fluctuating the basis of our currency is rendered from time to time on account of that course of trade; an evil which, as we have shown, can be removed by ourselves.

One of the most essential means to be used to augment the commercial intercourse between the United States and Germany, will be the establishment of a line of mail steamers between New York and one of the Hanse Towns. The harbor of Bremen is named for this purpose, and appears well adapted. Bremen, as shown in the previous statement, imports more American goods and exports more German articles than any other German port, and offers encouragement to a further extension of intercourse.

A line of mail steamers between New York and Bremen, connecting with the steamboats on the Weser and Elbe, and the railroads soon to be completed, and terminating at the Hanse Towns, would bring the heart of Germany, within the difference of a few days, as near to the United States as the principal cities of England. The yearly increasing commerce, correspondence and travelling, between the United States and Europe, call for such a measure. In the same manner that the state of New York by its central position forms the heart of the United States, through whose rivers, canals and railroads commerce and travelling from the other states are concentrated, so by its geographical position Germany is the heart of the continent of Europe. From all these reasons it seems advisable to establish the line of mail steamers between that port and New York.

In regard to the English mail steamers between Liverpool and Boston, I was informed in England, that the income for postage more than covered the pecuniary aid which the English government gives to that line; but, since I could obtain no official information on this subject, I would only say, that if such is the fact, the postage would pay in a similar manner a great part of the expenses of the contemplated steamers, particularly since they could also touch at some port or ports in the British channel, and deliver there the mail for England, France, Holland and Belgium.

I ask the American people and their statesmen, attentively to consider the advantages that would flow from favoring their *direct* commerce with Germany, and to adopt such measures as will lead to the settlement of the commercial intercourse of nations upon the fair basis of true reciprocity.*

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* It may not be superfluous as a matter of justice to all parties concerned, briefly to answer the following statement in the above quoted article, entitled "The Zollverein and the Hanse Towns," in the Washington Daily Union, of September 20, 1845. That article says:—

"In the Report of the Secretary of State, which accompanied the President's Message in 1843, it was remarked, in speaking of the Zollverein:—'The accession to the Union of the Kingdom of Hanover, with nearly two millions of inhabitants, is in contemplation. This event would doubtless induce the smaller states of the north to join the Union.' Now the department must have relied for information relative to what was transpiring in Germany, on individuals employed by the Government to conduct its affairs there; but, be the source what it may, from which the information was derived, that 'Hanover had it in contemplation to join the Union,' it either designedly mis-stated the facts, or was marvellously ignorant of them. So far from its having this object in 'contemplation,' it entered into a treaty with Great Britain last autumn, which utterly precludes the possibility of such an occurrence for ten years."

There are in my hands official public documents, entitled "The Great Zollverein of the German States, and the Commercial Union of Hanover and Oldenburg," printed in Hanover, February, 1844, in which the Government of Hanover states, that negotiations concerning a commercial union between Hanover and Oldenburg on the one side, and the Great Zollverein on the other, have been conducted during a long time. The voluminous correspondence on this subject forms the second part of this document. The United States' Secretary of State has consequently been correctly informed.

I have shown in a previous article published in the January number of this Magazine, that by establishing a firm and safe basis for our commercial intercourse, by means of treaties, is preferable to the present system, which is subject to great vacillation, arising from the frequent changes of political parties.

## Art. III.—THE ARTIST, THE MERCHANT, AND THE STATESMAN.

THE VALUE OF NATIONAL HOME FEELING, AND THE FUTURE INFLUENCE OF LITERATURE, COMMERCE AND THE ARTS ON THE FORTUNES OF AMERICA.

THIS last work of Mr. Lester* opens a field which has hitherto been untrodden by American authors; and as some of the topics it discusses, as well as its general tone and spirit, cannot but arrest the attention of all our readers who sympathise with the movements of the times, we shall make it the occasion of some remarks, in which we shall endeavor to show the practical application of the writer's views to the present state of the country. We shall say nothing of the article on the CONSULAR SYSTEM, which occupies considerable space in the first volume, for we have already published an able communication from Mr. Lester on this subject, in which the same views were advanced. We are glad to learn that his plan has received the approbation of the President and the Secretary of State, and that a bill will probably be introduced into Congress with a fair prospect of becoming a law, embracing substantially the plan here proposed. Our space will neither allow us to notice the *conversations* of the author with *Powers*, the sculptor, although they constitute some of the most interesting passages in the history of art we have ever read. We shall be obliged to limit ourselves to the *principles* and the spirit of the volumes under consideration, and prepare a dissertation on the topics of the book rather than a review of it.

Never has it been so important for our country to cultivate a home feeling, a strong, warm, American sentiment, as at the present moment. We are threatened with foreign aggression. Despotism in Europe looks upon our liberty with increasing distrust and fear; and seems watching an opportunity to strike. The very Holy Alliance talks of preserving a balance of power in our western home; and as our head is somewhat the loftiest, it must be cut down to the general level of Mexico and South America. Young liberty escaping into life, must be thrust back into the charnel house of despotism; and there will be the equilibrium and the quiet of death. The nations of America will lie still in their coffins. Nothing, in such a crisis, can afford us such real power and security, as to cause the body politic to feel to its remotest extremity, the deep and strong pulsations of an *American heart*. Our population, also, is spreading itself over an immense territory, and the times demand, for this reason, that our national bonds should be renewed and strengthened at all points. The living streams which set in upon our shores from Europe, bear with them foreign feelings and opinions, and there is a most urgent necessity that a national sentiment should be created here, so broad and deep, as to absorb all others into itself. Facilities for intercourse, which blend the people together, are doing much for our country in this respect; but our literary men, and our artists, could they have suitable patronage, might speedily accomplish far more than railroads or canals, if they would all unite in delivering the public taste from the thraldom of a foreign yoke, and cultivate far and wide over the land, a respect and love for our own. It is their mission to inform, quicken, and strengthen the American mind, till it will heartily engage in the proper development of our own national resources.

* THE ARTIST, THE MERCHANT, AND THE STATESMAN of the Age of the Medici and of our own Times. 2 vols., 12mo., 2d ed., 500 pp. New York: Paine & Burgess.

It is their task to lead the thought of the country in the true direction, and show, both in what American greatness consists, and how it may be attained.

In this noble task Mr. Lester seems to have engaged with the feelings of a true American; of one, who, while he loves his country and her institutions, desires her to occupy that higher station for which she is evidently destined. It cannot be denied, that as an author, he has exerted a wide influence in creating an independent, *home* sentiment in literature, while he would also quicken us in our national career towards a still nobler goal. In his works on England, by showing the leviathan as she is, he has helped to check our childish admiration, and to strengthen our confidence in ourselves and our institutions. In his Florentine histories, in his Citizen of a Republic, and in the work now under consideration, we are shown what a republican ought to be, in the opinion of great men, and some of the beautiful and glorious traits of Italian freedom are held up for our study and imitation. In showing the men and times of the Medici by the side of our own, he cannot fail to awaken in the American soul a new desire to run the far nobler race which is set before us.

The ARTIST, MERCHANT, and STATESMAN, is a book original in its design, containing much bold and manly thought, and thoroughly pervaded by American feeling. There is about it a straightforward, independent method of dealing with subjects, which shows a mind that has thought for itself, and would teach others to do the same.

He who in this manner helps to strengthen our Union, and who so scatters his thoughts that they shall spring up, and become a part of the great future which awaits us, has done a noble and honorable thing.

The two important ideas of these volumes are the value of national sentiment, and the future influence of literature and art upon the fortunes of America. These are noble themes, and worthy of all attention.

Our country is a wonder and a mystery. If, without irreverence, we may apply to her the words of an inspired writer, we would say of her, "It doth not yet appear what she shall be." Broad as her territory now is, and mighty as she stands among the nations, she is but a germ that contains things both stupendous and beautiful within the unfolded leaves. No clear vision of the glory of the expanded flower, the worth of the ripened fruit, has yet been granted to the most far-seeing eye. No man can now mark out a bound, and say, beyond this the eagle shall not stretch his shadowing wings. None can point to any region of this western world, and declare with certainty, *there*, the stars of "The Union" shall never be the symbol of dominion. Whoever reflects for a moment upon the tendency of events, and then places before him the map of North America, will find his eye following almost involuntarily the outline of the "Northern Continent" from Panama round to Panama again, as the line to which the swift surge of our population yet may roll, bearing upon its crest the emblems of our power.

How such a result is to be peaceably or honorably reached, we confess ourselves unable to perceive. Yet it cannot be denied, that in the minds of some who are considered American statesmen, the idea is already formed, that the mission of this nation is to occupy the whole Northern Continent, with Cuba for the key, and that "per fas aut nefas," our boundary must be the isthmus, the two oceans and the pole.

Our national life seems to spring from a fountain of vitality in whose

unfathomed depths, and unmeasured energies, are elements of growth, such as earth has never before seen, and we cannot now foretell, where the feet of the full grown colossus may be planted, or where the giant arm may reach. But though we have no political seer, who can stand with the measuring reed, to give the dimensions of the finished structure of our government, yet no one can longer doubt, that it contains in an almost unequalled degree the elements of vastness, of majesty, of almost resistless power. Already the movements which we make are felt to the borders of earth, and every year the voice we utter will have more power to awake and startle, and command the nations.

Let him who doubts this, remember that the child is now born, who may hear before he departs the hum of three hundred millions on the soil we now occupy, and that a thousand millions destined for this North American continent already approach the frontiers of life, rushing from the womb of the future to possess the land. We must, however, never forget, that in measuring the amount and kind of influence which the country shall exert upon the destiny of the race, the question of territory is not of the highest importance. Whether the millions that are to dwell on the great Pacific slope of our continent are to acknowledge our national banner, or rally to standards of their own; whether the remainder of Mexico is to become ours, by sudden conquest, or by gradual adoption; whether the British Provinces, when they pass from beneath the sceptre of England, shall be incorporated with us, or retain an independent dominion; these are, perhaps, questions which a not distant future may decide. However they may be settled, the great fact will remain essentially the same, that the two continents of this hemisphere shall yet bear up a stupendous, social, political, and religious structure, wrought out by *American mind*, colored by the hues of *American* thought, a vast body animated by an *American* soul.

Whatever the future divisions of territory may be, this nation, these United States are the living centre from which already flows the resistless stream, which will ultimately absorb into its own channel, and bear on in its own current, the whole policy, the whole thought of the two Americas. The American mind is a thing distinct from the soul of Europe. Our national soul is not yet fully embodied, or it wears rather a sort of patchwork body gathered out of all nations. But the free, strong spirit will soon cast off its tattered and ill-fitting tabernacle, and clothe herself in a body of institutions, which shall be the true outward expression of the inner glory, revealing in every member her own beauty, grace and power.

He who considers what the Anglo-Saxon mind has accomplished in the rest of the globe, going forth on its wonderful mission, from so small a centre as the island of Great Britain, and remembers that its strange task has been wrought out thus far, though cramped and well-nigh stifled, by the civil and religious forms of the *past*, will not deem that we stretch beyond its measure the ability of that same race, when *here* it has been taken out of the past, placed in the teeming and eventful present, itself the earnest and first-fruits of a new age, and stimulated by an element of growth unknown to all other ages, the power of free institutions united to, and acting with an unfettered and truly catholic Christianity. The one fact, that *here*, for the first time, on a large scale, the untrammelled gospel, not a tradition muttering and peeping from the gloom of ruin, nor a mummy swathed in forms, and dug out of the sepulchre of former generations;

but the pure, free spirit of the gospel, is working in concert with republican laws, marks our experiment as a new thing under the sun. No reasoning from analogy will help us to forecast *our* future. To know what we shall be, we must measure the united forces of democracy and Christianity, acting upon the most vigorous branch of the foremost race of men, on such a theatre as was never before prepared for any nation. Those who seem to look with the lust of possession on the whole continent should not forget, that mere hugeness of dimensions is not greatness. National greatness involves as its prominent idea, moral grandeur, elevation, and refinement of soul.

The possession of the whole continent, or both continents, will, of itself, no more render us worthy to hold a place in the world's thought and memory, than it exalted the tawny races who preceded us, though they held the soil from the icy north to Terra del Fuego.

Neither will physical power avail us. The time is coming, nay, its beginnings are already here, when ships of war and standing armies will be held as evidences not of civilization but of barbarism. To array against each other a million of men, and by power of steel and gunpowder send a hundred thousand into eternity, settles no principle of truth, produces no conviction; in short, determines nothing which were not made equally clear by a charge of five hundred thousand buffaloes on a side on one of our western prairies. Nations must soon leave brute force to the exercise of brutes, and adjust their own differences in the way of creatures gifted of God with a rational soul.

Mind is every where and in all things asserting its supremacy over matter, and the new era which is now beginning is to be regulated by the power of the soul. America, then, must throw her influence over earth, not by hugeness of dimensions, not by armies or fortifications or navies, nor by all physical powers combined. She is to be great and powerful, if at all, by the living power of thought. She is to cast over all nations the most potent of all enchantments, the spell of mind. She is to plant in the universal soul of the race, her life-giving thought, whose germination shall burst the fetters of the world.

What, if the most seducing visions of territorial greatness were fully realized; what, if the whole glorious vale of Mexico were studded with Anglo-Saxon homes, and without wrong or violence our banner could be unfurled over the city of Montezuma? What, if the Pacific slope should be the home of empire states, gathering to their commercial cities the riches of the "exhaustless East," and occupying the same relative position to the Mississippi valley and the Atlantic coast, which Venice and Genoa and Florence once did to western Europe, receiving and distributing as they did the wealth of the land of the sun. What, if the Canadian Provinces were united to us, not simply by the political bonds of external union, but so assimilated as to become an actual living member of the living body of our government? We should then reckon our population by hundreds of millions—we should possess a wealth and power which would show even Imperial Rome as small in comparison.

Armed men by millions might be ready to defend our standard; our navy might darken all nations, and defy a world; and still, if this were all, we should be unworthy to be called great in that bright era which the nations are just touching, or perhaps have already begun.

Such greatness belongs to the past. The present and the future demand

an intellectual and moral grandeur. They will be swayed only by the sceptre of mind. If then any thing American is to possess and hold that future, it must be American mind; the great, free thought of the earnest Saxon soul. Nor will it be sufficient that our national intellect should walk the earth with the huge, rough form and strength of a Cyclop. It is not thus that we are to fulfil our mission in moulding the destinies of man. Those mighty energies which are expended now upon lower objects of pursuit, must be devoted to literature and the fine arts, till the whole nation becomes enamored of the spirit of beauty, and learns to recognise traces of the Divinity in all that is true and in all that is fair. Nor let it be supposed that the mere study of what others have wrought, or the copying of the productions of other minds, or the filling up of our country with the remains of other ages, is all that is demanded. Our true object lies heaven-wide of all this. We owe to ourselves and to the human race, a school of literature and art thoroughly our own. We are bound to originate a system, and to begin an era; to leave to the world a legacy of art, and song, and eloquence, as peculiarly American, as that was Grecian which we have received from Athens.

The individual great man is not a piece of fancy patchwork, nor a reservoir filled with other men's ideas; he stands alone and original, because his growth is not by accretion, but by the development of himself, an independent germ of the planting of God.

This is equally true of a great nation. Look back upon Egypt, Greece and Rome. We behold them looming up among the ages; each with a grandeur and beauty of its own; an individual character in literature and art, which was the result of the joint action of religious belief, of political system, of events, of scenery, and of the peculiar structure of the intellect of the race. In every one of these particulars, we stand alone, equally distinguished from the past and the present.

To engraft a foreign literature and art upon a system otherwise harmoniously compacted from American materials, would be to construct the poetic monster of Horace with the human head, the horse's neck, the many colored plumes, "et membris undique collectis." Or, to adopt a more pertinent, though less classic comparison, it would be to imitate the worthy, safe-going Dutchmen, who, while wading in clay, and scrambling over piles of wood on the banks of the Hudson, still continued to import their bricks from Holland.

In mentioning what we of the west possess, distinct from the rest of the earth, and which ought to appear in our books, our paintings, and our sculpture, it were not useless, perhaps, to particularise.

Unless we deny all influence to scenery in moulding moral and intellectual character, then must we believe that a land in whose features grandeur and beauty are so wonderfully mingled, where vastness of size in mountain and plain, and river and lake, is blended with the most delicate loveliness, will stamp upon the human mind impressions which in sublimity and glory will be in agreement with the objects from whence they are derived. In this respect, then, the training of our national mind will tend to give it a depth and breadth, an energy and loftiness, unknown before, and fit it to move in the highest regions of thought. Again, the events of our national history, even in this, our morning, teem with all those influences which, in connection with love of country, have power to stir the great depths of the soul. It is a history of oppression, of suffering,

and ultimate triumph; of weakness gathering strength to make the mighty recoil; of the seed of a nation sown amid contempt and dishonor, but springing up in glory and in power. These things will yet bring forth words that shall speak to man's universal soul, and therefore will never die; they will yet kindle and inspire American genius till canvass and marble shall proudly tell our history unto other times.

And then the soul of man here no longer sits bound and blind amid the despotic forms of the past; it walks abroad without a shackle, and with an uncovered eye, and by the power of a fresh and free Christianity, an influence from the unseen world flows down to control and shape the visible. Quickened by all these glorious influences ready to minister to her greatness, let America approach for herself the great fountains of truth, the source of the beautiful and sublime, and with God and not man for a teacher, let her earnestly and reverently study till she can produce a literature and an art, which shall be the true exponent of these western empires, and which shall bear upon it the freshness, the power, the originality of a new era and a new world. But by what means is this to be done? From what quarter shall come that liberal nurture of the scholar, the sculptor, the painter, which shall cherish genius into life and maturity, till it shall make the past immortal, and secure the future? We think Mr. Lester, in the remarks which he has made upon the merchants and commerce of the Italian republics, has truly shown us where our literature and our artists must look for that generous patronage which alone can secure success. While the spirit of freedom dwelt in Italy, the wealth won from the golden east, and freely expended by her merchant princes, made her once glorious cities the Meccas of art; and now from all nations the gifted ones go up there as pilgrims, to honor the mighty dead, and catch inspiration by the sepulchres of the prophets. Then each takes a live coal from the altars of Italy, and goes home to kindle it in his own land.

Italy has now lost all but her hope, and her works of art and the love of them; and yet in her weakness, her desolation and widowhood, what a centre she still is for the world of thought. She loved and honored her men of genius, and now when the living would trample down and dishonor her, she is protected by the dead.

Says Mr. Lester, contrasting the social life and the system of business of Europe and America—

"I well know that nations, as well as individuals, have a career to run, which begins with infancy, and finishes with old age; and that a certain analogy may be traced in the history of their developments. We are still in the flush and vigor, and heat of youth, when all is fire and impetuosity. We have not yet reached the age of thought—we have not yet found leisure for reflection. But we are emerging from the dusty heat of the race-course, and coming out upon the sloping hill-side, where the air is pure, and the landscape smiling. A few have already learned the great secret of happiness, the object and charm of life. It is singular, too, that many of this class are the very men who have been the victims of the American spirit—business men, who were diverted from study in youth by the golden dreams that enthral so many of the choicest minds in our country. They entered the contest, they mingled in the heat and fury, and they were at last compelled to leave the field, exhausted, worn down, tired out, sad, too, with the thought that the charm of life was broken. Some of them are able to retire with ample fortunes, but too generally is it true, that the American never abandons his business till his business abandons him; and so far has this spirit overcome the better sense of our citizens, it is even considered dangerous for a man to retire from active life—everybody says he will die! And I believe there

is some truth in it, too; but how sad a commentary does it offer upon our system of life; a system which turns man so entirely into a machine, that reflection kills him. And the poor victim of toil is obliged to toil on, and work himself into the grave, to keep out of it, through that very period of life nature has consecrated to the hallowed pleasures of retirement and reflection. It is a dreadful spectacle to see the poor victim's overtasked muscles still strained in the counting-house, and along the marts of commerce, when he should have long ago fled to some quiet retreat, among the green fields and dashing waters, and still woods, and magical gardens, to survey the journey of life he had travelled, and pass a green old age of tranquillity, in getting ready for the beautiful life to come.

"A sight still sadder, and more often met with, is such a man in the evil hour, when the fever of gain drove him into one more speculation that swept him to ruin. He is too old to begin life again at the bottom of the hill, and retires to the bosom of his destitute family to die. They have been brought up in luxury, which is certain now to make them still more wretched; and they live only to mourn over the folly of a father who had not given up the hazards and cares of business, when he had amassed wealth enough to make them all as happy as money ever can make us. But the greater proportion left business with but a fraction of what they once might have retired on, had the fatal charm been sooner broken. They counted their means after discharging all their obligations, and regulated their expenses accordingly. With proper economy, they could still be independent; and with a small farm to cultivate, they found sources of pleasure in nature, in society, in books, and reflection, they never dreamed of before. * * *

"That is the life that wears us out at home; it drives the young man through college and into a profession at the age of twenty-one; and five years at the bar, in the pulpit, or in the counting-house, and he is broken down. This is the life that fades out our wives, and gives them at thirty a languid, pallid, care-worn look a European woman seldom gets, and never until late in life; this is the life that makes and breaks a thousand banks in half a generation; that makes millions rich and poor again the same year; that brings on commercial panics and convulsions; this is the life that makes our soirees boisterous and noisy as our political meetings; that exiles quiet from our social and domestic life, and infects every scene of home, and family, and friends, and society, with the business, the dollar spirit. * * * * *

"The scholars of Europe study more intensely, and accomplish far more, and live far longer than our own. Her professional men run a longer and brighter career. Her commercial men amass greater fortunes, and lead a life of less toil. Her women live in society, and seem never to grow old, for they are always young with cheerfulness. Why is all this?

"If the enigma were to be solved by a single word, I should say—amusement. Every European, even the slave classes, (I do not speak of England) has his hour or moment of diversion, of relaxation, of *dolce far niente;* all of which is as necessary to perfect health of body and mind, as sleep, or food, or rest. The merchant goes from his counting-house at two; reposes himself in his private cabinet or library; dines at four; rides out into the country with his family, and devotes the evening to society or amusement. The scholar, the professor, the artist, the clergyman, all abandon their occupations at a certain hour of the day; and until the next morning, all thought, all talk, all solicitude about their affairs is banished. For the rest of the day they are men of leisure and society. A walk, a soiree, an opera, a card party, a concert, anything that makes life bright, and the heart glad.

"Such is the life the experience of two thousand years has taught the old world; and although in making its way into our social system in America, it must battle against the giant spirit of business and gain on one side, and the narrow spirit of religious bigotry on the other, yet it is appearing among us. It is already strongly developed in the change of hours of business, and the arrangements of commerce; in the increased numbers that pass their summers at the watering-places, and in tours of pleasure; in a relaxation of that narrow selfishness which branded a love for intellectual and social amusement as impiety and sin;

in a wide and general diffusion of a love and patronage of the fine arts; in a taste for horticulture, landscape gardening, and the life of the villa, with its repose, and elegant and noble amusements; in a better taste for architecture, and fountains, and pleasure-grounds, for cemeteries and monuments; in the vast increase of the numbers of our countrymen who are coming to Europe and going back Americans; in the cultivation of a home feeling and a national spirit; in our literature, our celebrations, and our jubilees; in a single word, in the development of that love for society, for those liberal and elegant pursuits and pleasures which constitutes the great and the only charm of the social life of Europe."

The Austrian may crush her, but she cannot wholly die; Genius has breathed upon her and made her immortal. Why then should not our merchants do for their country all and more than those of Genoa and Florence and Venice could accomplish there? To their liberality and enterprise must be committed the hope of the country. To them must we look for that impulse which shall make this land the marvel and glory of earth. The minds of great merchants are liberalized by the operations of their business. Their souls necessarily become familiar with large thoughts. They sweep over wide fields in their business combinations. Their mental eye is trained to clear and far-seeing vision. They alone, as a class, possess the wealth which can afford a generous patronage. For what other so noble purpose could our merchants employ their fortunes, as to ennoble and distinguish their nation, and place the last, most splendid jewel in the diadem of Liberty? How else so firmly and brightly link their own names to the future, as to associate themselves so closely with literature and art, as to share in their immortality? It is permitted to the American merchants of our age to be remembered in coming times, as we now dwell upon the illustrious names of those who baptized Italy with the spirit of beauty, and made her a "marvel and a show." We must turn to our merchants for all this, because our professional and scientific men are too much occupied in their peculiar pursuits, and because they have not the necessary wealth. Our statesmen are almost utterly swallowed up in the party strifes of to-day, which to-morrow will have lost all their interest for ever. The feverish, unquiet present, with its successes and reverses, its offices and spoils, seems to have engulfed their minds beyond the hope of recovery. Our affluent, large-souled merchants alone can effectually aid in enlarging and refining the national mind, and in founding a new school and a new era in art, for these western continents, as grand, beautiful and *original* as themselves, and which shall spring legitimately from the birth-throes of American thought. The field, especially of art, lies almost untrodden, covered with the richest materials, as yet unwrought. The stirring incidents of our national history are fading from the minds of our people, because they have not been suitably illustrated. They live not in the marble—they speak not to the eye and heart from the canvass.

Through the influx of foreigners bringing with them the associations of other lands, and for want of suitable monuments to keep ever before the eye the great features of our history, our national enthusiasm grows weak, and our love and reverence for the fathers waxes cold. Is it not a mournful sign of the indifference to the glorious past which is stealing over the public, that foreigners are permitted to speak in contempt of our institutions, and slander our noblest patriots, almost without an answering rebuke? It is a fatal mistake to suppose that the human mind, in its present stage, can be held steady by the power of an abstract principle. There must be the appropriate symbol to arrest and fasten attention, and to kindle the spirit

within. If there is any exception to this rule, it must be made in favor of the quick, life-giving principles of the Gospel. But the great significant fact, that our Redeemer presented himself to our *senses*, and became the *confluent point*, between the human and Divine, should lead us to inquire, whether the grossness of our present constitution does not demand something *mediate* between us and an abstract principle, *through which* we pass more readily to the apprehension of truth, and retain it with more tenacious grasp.

The abuse of this principle we know becomes idolatry; but it may be questioned whether Protestantism, in its horror of idols, has not somewhat overlooked the necessities of our nature. However this may be, experience has taught the world that patriotism, as a mere sentiment, a disembodied spirit, does not long sway any people with power. There must be the national ballad echoing from lip to lip, and the national music ringing out over land and sea, to cause millions of hearts to warm at the recollections of the past. Yankee Doodle has done more to give us a national sentiment than all the 4th of July orations ever spoken. In our country, so exposed to influences that make the past grow dim, our whole land should be a museum of works of art illustrating our national history, and stamping in upon all minds the story of Freedom, and the principles of our fathers. The noble and the brave of America, the long line of our mighty dead; where do they rest, and how are they honored? Most of them are sleeping without the slightest memorial that bespeaks a national gratitude. On how many battle fields are those men mouldering, who, by their blood, have made us what we are, and not even the rudest and cheapest monument tells where that tide of battle rolled which swept the oppressor away, or where our heroes sleep. A small board, like a "cake and beer" sign, is all that distinguishes Saratoga, one of our most glorious fields.

In the burying-yard of Plattsburgh there is a group of little grave-stones, such as are commonly placed over the tombs of small children, and in approaching them, one naturally fancies that some epidemic has swept a company of infants away. What then are his feelings when informed that these are the monuments of the *officers* who fell on the decks of McDonnough's ships, and the *officers* who died by the banner of Macomb? In that grave-yard sleeps one of the sweetest of the young poets of America, a genuine child of genius, and yet the writer of this made a long search in vain for her tomb, aided by an *old resident of the village*, who was a *candidate for Congress.*

Where are the statues and the paintings and the monuments, which by preserving in the memory of a whole people our great and noble men, would also serve to reproduce their characters, perpetuate their principles, and beget a true, strong and general love for our own? Where are the illustrations of our nation's rise, struggle and victory, a sight of which would quicken the great pulses of the national heart? These things, and these alone, can beget or preserve a real nationality of feeling, break the power of foreign attachments, and blend our population into one.

We look forward with confident hope to the time when the noble villas of our merchants, in the neighborhood of our great cities, shall be adorned with whatever can minister to a pure, refined and elegant taste; and when American art shall derive its influences from the invisible, not through the false medium of the old mythologies, but hold for itself *direct communion* with the Spiritual, the Beautiful and the True. This would give us an *American* school worthy of the age.

## Art. IV.—THE UNITED STATES TARIFF UPON WOOL.

Our present tariff upon wool, fails essentially to accomplish the object of the framers, which was to encourage and protect this branch of American production. That our markets are not chiefly supplied with wool from abroad—that our farmers suffer not by foreign competition in the production of wool of various value, from 15 to 40 cents—is not because of protection by the present tariff. Doubtless the intention was to levy a duty upon all varieties of wool that American farmers wish to produce, proportionate to the duty upon imported goods manufactured from wool of like quality. In other words, to protect the farmer and manufacturer equally in their labor and capital. But the practical operation of the law is far otherwise; and decisions already had, and precedents already established, leave no room to expect a change of administration of the law. There is no apparent way for farmers to obtain equal justice, except by a re-adjustment of the tariff in this particular.

The following is the portion of the law concerning wool, adopted in 1842:—

"On coarse wool unmanufactured, the value whereof, at the last port or place whence exported to the United States, shall be seven cents or under per pound, there shall be levied a duty of five per centum ad valorem: And on all other manufactured wool there shall be levied a duty of three cents per pound, and thirty per centum ad valorem: *Provided*, That when wool of different qualities of the same kind or sort is imported in the same bale, bag or package, and the aggregate value of the contents of the bale, bag or package, shall be appraised by the appraisers at a rate exceeding seven cents per pound, it shall be charged with a duty in conformity to such appraisal: *Provided, further*, That when wool of different qualities, and different kinds or sorts, is imported in the same bale, bag or package, the contents of the bale, bag or package shall be appraised at the value of the finest or most valuable kind or sort, and a duty charged thereon accordingly: *Provided, further*, That if bales of different qualities are embraced in the same invoice, at the same price, the value of the whole shall be appraised according to the value of the bale of the first quality: *Provided, further*, That if any wool be imported having in it dirt or any material or impurities other than those naturally belonging to the fleece, and thus be reduced in value to seven cents per pound, or under, the appraisers shall appraise said wool at such price as, in their opinion, it would have cost had it not been so mixed with such dirt or impurities, and a duty shall be charged thereon in conformity with such appraisal."

The phraseology appears plain and explicit; and it not having been supposed that our farmers wished to produce a wool so inferior as to be purchased anywhere for 7 cents or less, those concerned in the production have considered themselves sufficiently protected. But a little investigation shows that in all medium grade wool, and coarser, there is no difficulty in importing at a 5 per cent duty; and a Boston importer said to the writer, before knowing his object in making inquiries, that "the law was of no account." He spoke of one large importation, probably the one alluded to by Mr. Walker in his circular quoted below, which paid a 5 per cent duty, and concerning which he had advices from his agent at the time of shipment, saying that quality could not be bought there for 9 cents. Of long wool, suitable for combing, I have known none that paid over 5 per cent, and importers say they could not afford to pay more. In visiting importing houses, prices have frequently been named to buyers in my hearing, varying from 15 to 30 cents, in the condition in which it was imported.

No one supposes wool of that value can be bought anywhere at 7 cents; yet none having passed the custom-house appraised at over 7 cents, except of fine quality, it must have come in at a 5 per cent duty.

The duty is evaded both by importing fine wool with coarse, and unwashed with washed; and though the provisoes appear to be inserted with express reference to such frauds, yet the practice of the custom-houses, under the instructions of the treasury department, affords not the least check. From a bale of clean Buenos Ayres wool, I have taken samples coarse as dog's hair, with others that would readily bring 45 cents per pound; and I am so green as to suppose such of different "kinds or sorts," and therefore, according to the second proviso, to "be appraised at the value of the first." Yet this was imported at a 5 per cent duty, although the importer would not sell it for 25 cents per pound. And, notwithstanding the price of wool is increased 50 to 100 per cent by washing, yet, cleanliness not "being inherent in the object, and co-existent," the unwashed and washed is all declared to be of the same quality, no matter what the difference in value. In this manner, by the shrewd discriminations and logical reasoning of the powers that be, the provisoes, requiring all of a bale or invoice to be appraised according to the value of the best, are rendered a perfectly dead letter.

In a disagreement as to the rate of duty on an invoice, Mr. Secretary Walker made the following decision, which was made authoritative by his circular to Collectors of 3d October last. After reciting the law, with the first three provisoes, he says:—

"In determining the question as to the liability of wool unmanufactured to the charge of the higher rate of duty, under these several provisoes, in consequence of the attendant circumstances therein mentioned, it became necessary to ascertain and establish the true meaning of the words *quality* and *qualities* as used therein, and consequently whether the said words should or should not be taken as synonymous with *value*.

"After due reflection the department was of opinion, that the words were not of the same signification; a conclusion fully sustained by the works of standard authority on synonymes, where the *quality* of a thing is understood to be, a property inherent in the object, and co-existent; while its *value* is accidental or contingent, depending on the variable tastes or wants of man; *price* being the measure of *value* in mercantile transactions.

"These distinctive definitions would seem, also, to have been in view of the framers of the law, as a reference to the dictionaries of commerce of the highest character will show that they are recognized, and actually applied, to the several varieties of wool, in the separation and assorting of fleeces.

"In a case recently before the department, arising on an importation of 116 bales of Cordova wool, from Buenos Ayres into the port of New York, the appraisers appointed under the provisions of law, after an examination of the entire invoice, reported that although 5 out of the 116 bales were, at the time of purchase, from the effect of washing, of a higher value than 7 cents per pound; and the value of the entire invoice, if rated according to the valuation of those bales, would be 8 cents per pound, yet the whole 116 bales embraced in the invoice were of the same kind and sort, and did *not* differ in *quality*.

"Under these circumstances, and upon the facts shown, the decision of the department was, that the value of the whole invoice in question, was not to be appraised according to the value of those particular bales found to contain wool, the value of which was over 7 cents per pound."

With the influences which might have operated with the honorable secretary, in making this decision, or even with his reasoning, we have nothing to do. No argument which I could adduce, would in the least

affect a decision given so publicly, and with a full knowledge of facts, far beyond what I possess. And it is not material whether the expositions were founded upon a clear conviction of the intentions of Congress, and the natural meaning of the words; or whether he had not some desire to make the tariff, as a whole, odious to the great mass, by endeavoring to show agriculturists that they had no part in the protection given to American industry. The effect of the decision alone concerns us; and such being the construction of the law, to govern at least during this administration, is it not right to ask—is it not wise for Congress to make—at least sufficient modifications to enforce the spirit of the law, and relieve themselves from the charge of favoring one branch of industry, to the injury of another?

Some consider a tariff upon wool unnecessary, knowing that we are now exporting in considerable quantity; probably 800,000 lbs. having been shipped the past season. But the conclusion is arrived at without full and fair consideration of the whole matter. It is true, that so long as we can export an article with profit, protection by tariff is inoperative, except as giving stability in the home market; and therefore the evasions of the tariff by the importation of the grades exported, has not injured the American producer, further than that the increased surplus would naturally cause some more depression in the home market. And in medium grade wool, such as has ranged in our markets the past season at from 22 to 40 cents, we do not now, and probably never shall again, need protection. We can produce it as cheaply as any other nation, and shall export annually a constantly increasing amount. Yet, let it be remembered that we are exporters of this quality only, and large importers of others, having received at the New York custom-house alone, during the year ending 30th June last, 7,487,538 lbs. of wool, appraised at 7 cents and under, and 150,454 lbs. at over 7 cents; and during the succeeding quarter, ending 30th Sept., 2,175,125 lbs. of 7 cents wool, and 1,657 lbs. of finer. Most, if not all of this, might and should have been the product of our own land and industry; and the same policy that has established our coarse cotton manufacturers, so that besides supplying our own market, we compete successfully with any other manufacturers in foreign markets, will in like manner give us, not only an abundance of every grade of wool we need for home consumption, but supply much for export. Of fine wool, it is true, we are considerable importers, notwithstanding the present tariff sufficiently protects it, and probably is fairly enforced; the aggregate value of fine wool imported into New York during the fifteen months above named, according to the custom-house appraisal, being $72,512, which would be a little over 48 cents per pound. But it takes some time to enlarge the production of fine wool to so great an extent; much longer comparatively than of coarse. A few years, however, and we will furnish more than we shall consume. The law is well enough as it regards full blood merino and finer.

But concerning coarse wool, it is worthy of inquiry among Congressmen, whether the tariff should not be modified, even if it were now fairly enforced. They doubtless believed in '42, that we could not profitably produce that kind of wool which could be purchased abroad for 7 cents and under, and therefore made the duty upon it nominal, so that American manufacturers could procure it as cheaply as others, and at least compete with them successfully in supplying our own market with goods made of it.

But if the opinion were then correct, it is wrong now. We can and should produce all varieties of wool that our manufacturers want; and it is due, not only to farmers, but to the whole industry of the country, that reasonable and sufficient protection should be accorded to encourage and establish the production of the coarser grades.

The benefit would be direct and immediate, as that of opening any other branch of industry. It is the argument of protectionists,—and a correct one, too, both in theory and practice,—that as a nation, it is requisite to our highest prosperity, to give the greatest possible variety to our productions. To employ our own labor in manufacturing an article for which we have hitherto paid foreigners, is so much saved to ourselves, and tends to enhance the value of labor by increasing the demand for it. The argument, sound when applied to manufactures, loses none of its force when applied to agriculture. And as we are producing too much of some varieties of wool, so that we export, and too little of others, so that we import; and as it follows, that if protection be needed at all, it is upon the kind for which there is most demand in proportion to the home supply; shall not the tariff be so modified as to be of real benefit to the country?

It is by no means an unimportant consideration, that to divert a portion of our capital and industry to the production of coarse varieties that we now import, would sensibly improve the price of other varieties. A small surplus will depress the market oftentimes below the cost of production, particularly when capital is not abundant and not seeking investment. We probably produce for wholesale manufacturers, 30,000,000 lbs.; 7,000,000, probably fine, and the balance chiefly of medium grade. Of this sort, we consume, say 20,000,000 lbs., leaving 3,000,000 surplus. Now the influence of a surplus is so great in depressing prices, that probably the whole amount brings the producers no more than the 20,000,000 would sell for, were the supply only equal to the demand. We ought by all means to produce all sorts, if possible, so that the market will not be glutted with one kind while we are compelled to import others; and if the present system of duties tends to a contrary result, unquestionably it should be altered.

The impression has been general, that foreign 7 cents wool is of a quality which our farmers would have to sell at 10 to 12 cents, the production of which they could not make profitable, and therefore the tariff upon it is merely nominal. But a simple calculation discovers the error. This kind the importer could not afford to sell for less than 9 cents, and manufacturers say in scouring, it will waste 65 per cent—call it 60. Domestic wool in scouring, loses about one-third; so that 166 2-3 lbs. of foreign, would only cleanse an equal amount with 100 lbs. of domestic, and would cost $15. Then foreign at 9 cents is no better to the manufacturer, than domestic at 15 cents.

This grade, and even better, can be raised by American farmers at a profit, at that price, as soon as they get the fixtures and the right breed of sheep; and necessity will ere long compel them to it, protection or no protection. If unsuccessful elsewhere, at any rate on the prairies it will prove profitable. But if the duty could be increased so as to raise the price of all foreign, say to 11 cents, it would expedite the business several years. The profits would at once be found greater on combing varieties and coarser, than on medium grades, and efforts would be made to get a breed of large frame that would clip 5 to 6 pounds to the fleece. Let 18

cents a pound be insured to the farmer for such wool, and I will engage that within five years we will be exporters of it. Natural competition will then bring the price down to a fair profit upon the cost of production, and the country will have a steady and permanent supply at home, cheaper than it could be obtained abroad. Were it necessary, I could give estimates to show the cost of production; but I will only state, that western farmers will be glad to keep sheep at the halves, and with healthy flocks the increase is considered worth as much as the wool. 5 lbs. of wool at 15 cents is 75; and as the sheep will not cost over $1, that is 75 per cent per annum. But allow one-half for casualties, and I *guess*, reckon, or calculate, the business will pay.

Manufacturers making use of this quality of wool may perhaps complain of the proposed alteration, saying they will be broken up in their business unless they can get the raw material as cheap as the English. We acknowledge the object is to make them pay more than they are now paying, and if it fail of this, it is a fruitless effort. And to make a sudden change of the tariff policy under which they have been induced to establish their business, which would ruin them, would be wholly wrong, and is not solicited. Let the alteration be prospective, to take effect say on 1st July, 1847. That will afford an ample opportunity for manufacturers to conform their operations to the increased tariff, and if they desire, to import a portion of their stock a year or two ahead. Meanwhile the farmers will be made aware of the probably increased value of coarse wool, and will make their arrangements accordingly. And let consumers remember that they will not long have to pay an increased price. In a very short time they will find the increased cost more than refunded, by being supplied with a better and cheaper stock than they have ever used.

On the prairies of the west, wool must be the staple production. Pork, beef and wheat, will also be great articles there; but experience shows that region to be admirably adapted to sheep husbandry, and the expense of transporting wool to market, is a less per cent upon its value, than upon any other article they can supply for which there is equal demand. For the Bakewell and Cotswold breeds with their crosses, the rich prairie pasturage is particularly adapted, and when farmers can get fields of blue-grass for winter pasturage, they will raise this wool for a very small price. Some may therefore consider the proposed modification designed chiefly for the west. But I would suggest to those inclined to consider the measure sectional in its bearings, that THE WEST is a great country, and is to yield agricultural produce of some kind far beyond what is dreamed of by those unacquainted with it. The greater variety they can send to market, the less will they be compelled to send of one article; and as the farmers of the eastern and middle states and a portion of the south, have to meet their western brethren in competition in their own markets on most of the articles they raise, it behoves them to see that the west is not compelled to raise so much of a staple as to glut the market, and reduce the price below what the eastern farmer can afford it. The item of seven or eight millions pounds of wool now imported, which might be given to the west, and absorb considerable industry and capital which is now producing other things that farmers in older sections would like to produce, is not to be considered of trifling importance. In this, as in the adoption of any and every other measure of national utility, what is beneficial to one section will in the end benefit every other section.

As before observed, farmers will be compelled in a few years to the production of coarse wool, whatever may be the tariff policy concerning it. But the process under the present system will be a slow one; and so long as the protective policy continues,—and God forbid that in the United States it should be abandoned at least for generations to come,—it appears no more than right to grant to so important an interest as wool-growing, equal protection with that accorded other industrial pursuits.

If these views be correct, then the tariff upon wool should be altered:

1st. Because it is evaded; the remedy for which should be a clear definition of its intent, to take effect immediately; and

2d. Because coarse wool needs temporary protection, which should be given by imposing a specific duty, say of 3 cents per pound on wool appraised at less than 7 cents, to take effect on 1st July, 1847. J. S. W.

## Art. V.—FIRST APPLICATION OF STEAM TO RAILWAYS.

COL. JNO. STEVENS' DOCUMENTS, PUBLISHED IN 1812, AND AT THAT TIME PROVING THE SUPERIOR ADVANTAGES OF RAILWAYS AND STEAM CARRIAGES OVER CANAL NAVIGATION—MR. CHARLES WILLIAMS' CLAIM AS THE INVENTOR OF RAILWAYS, ETC., REFUTED—PHARAOH'S RAILWAYS TO THE PYRAMIDS—THE INVENTIONS OF FITCH, OLIVER EVANS, FULTON AND STEVENS—MEMORIAL OF COL. STEVENS TO THE COMMISSIONERS FOR EXPLORING THE ROUTE OF AN INLAND NAVIGATION IN THE STATE OF NEW YORK—LETTER FROM ROBERT LIVINGSTON—REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON MR. STEVENS' MEMORIAL—HIS ANSWER TO THE REPORT, ETC.

*To the Editor of the Merchants' Magazine:—*

MR. HUNT:—I have seen in the Richmond Whig of the 13th December, 1845, a communication from Mr. Charles Williams, Fluvanna county, Virginia, claiming to be the "first inventor of railways, and the application of steam, with the adhesive principle of the locomotive, to give the capacity to draw burthens after it;" that in 1817, Mr. Williams invented a wooden railway to remove dirt, and in 1821–22, he planned a small engine in Boston, to use steam; that subsequent to this period, say in 1829, the offer of £500 sterling was made by the Liverpool and Manchester Railway Company for a locomotive engine, "capable of drawing after it, on a well constructed railway, on a level, a train of carriages, of the gross weight of twenty tons, including the tender and water-tank, at the rate of ten miles per hour." This offer induced Mr. Stephenson (as I draw the conclusion from his letter) to build the Novelty locomotive, which took the above premium, and which he intimates was copied from his invention.

While I would not wish to pluck one feather from Mr. Williams' plume, yet I cannot allow a brother Jerseyman to pass unnoticed. As far as my research goes, Col. John Stevens, of Hoboken, was, in the year 1809, the first individual in this country, (or in any other, I believe,) who conceived, and defined the proportions of the locomotive, and compared "the superior capacity and advantages of a railway with those of a canal." He then stated clearly its astonishing powers for rapid transit, at cheap rates. It is true, Mr. Barlow treated us in his "Columbiad," to the vision of steam, dragging the "ponderous car," which was considered as poetry at that time; but to Col. Stevens are we indebted for the practical detail of the cost and construction of a railway from Albany to Buffalo, and for the size and description of the present locomotive, with its expansive steam power of seventy pounds to the square inch. This fact I will show by extracts

from a rare pamphlet now before me, entitled, "*Documents tending to prove the superior advantages of Railways and Steam Carriages over Canal Navigation,*" published in New York, 1812.

"The filial piety" alluded to by Mr. Williams, which prompted him to "burn his books, and for sixteen years to forget and neglect the subject of railways, at the request of his aged parent," is the only excuse I can find for his not having seen "the documents" alluded to, nor the correspondence of Col. Stevens during the winter of 1812 with Robert L. Livingston, Gouverneur Morris, and De Witt Clinton. He certainly could not have read much, or he would not have considered himself entitled to the claim of "the first inventor of railways."

If my reading and memory serves me, the Pharaohs had railways from their quarries to the pyramids, traces of which are said to be still in existence. It is certainly a long period since the wooden Tram railroad for hand labor was introduced into the coal mines of Wales; for horse power, this class of road, surmounted with hoop iron, afterwards cast iron rails, then the half-inch flat bar, and finally the edge rail of thirty pounds to the lineal yard. This rail, of the T ⊞ and ⊓ forms, has since been increased to eighty pounds the yard on the most approved railways, where freight and high speed is required. But to return to Col. Stevens. He was an officer during the war of the Revolution, born in 1750, and died March 6, 1838. He survived to see realized his "visionary calculations," as they were called, so far ahead of the age in which he lived. He was the associate of those remarkable geniuses, Fitch and Oliver Evans, men of whom America may be proud. To the former, we must give the invention and successful application of steam in this country to propel vessels, in the year 1785; to the latter, the use of steam in the streets of Philadelphia, in 1788, to propel carriages on land with cog-wheels. That the success of Evans in the application of steam on land, may have suggested the idea to Col. Stevens, to use this powerful agent on iron rails, by the adhesion of the locomotive, is more than probable; but I consider Col. Stevens to be as much entitled to the name and credit of inventor and discoverer, as Fulton was in applying the paddle-wheel as an improvement over the paddle-oar of Fitch, to his first steamboat on the Delaware, in 1787.

That Col. Stevens was far in advance of Mr. C. Williams as a discoverer, in the radical improvement of railways, (the locomotive) is proved by the extracts below, taken from the pamphlet alluded to. The description given of a locomotive in 1812, may have prompted Mr. Stephenson, the engineer of the Liverpool and Manchester Railway, to construct the Novelty, in 1829, the first locomotive built in England.

It appears, that prior to 1812, from an extract (in the "Introduction" to the pamphlet,) of Mr. Madison's message for 1811, Col. Stevens induced that distinguished statesman to entertain his views of internal improvements, although Mr. Madison, like his countrymen, favored canals, then about to be started in the state of New York. The Languedoc canal in France, and the engineering talents of that country, in the employ of Virginia, no doubt directed her efforts to climb her mountains of 2,500 feet elevation, there to catch water in reservoirs, on the very limited space of their summits, for the rains of heaven to fall, or to tunnel them. The folly of this policy is now apparent to the well informed of New York, Pennsylvania, Maryland and Virginia. The state of New York was more fortunate, as she had no summit to overcome.

The route of the Erie Canal is a descending line, favoring the course of trade from the lakes to the ocean; yet Col. Stevens' plan was the best, and the day is not distant when it will be admitted and adopted.

Upwards of sixty millions of capital, and more than half that amount in interest and expenses, say one hundred millions, has been thrown away in these States, because such distinguished men as Robert R. Livingston, Gouverneur Morris, and De Witt Clinton, did not investigate the merits of railways, which are now in a fair way to supersede the canals in these States, with less than half this expenditure on railways; and then, with results, (to use the language of Col. Stevens in 1812) "in a military point of view, that will be incalculable." Again he adds, (page 7,) "they would at once render our frontiers on every side invulnerable. Armies could be conveyed in twenty-four hours, a greater distance than it would take them weeks, or perhaps months, to march." * * "Whatever constitutional doubts may be entertained respecting the power of Congress to cut canals, there can be none about the power to lay out and make roads." In the "Introduction" to the pamphlet alluded to, Col. S. commences and states—

"The following documents are committed to the press, from an estimation of their importance, and from a full conviction of the practicability of the proposed improvement." * * * * "Although my proposal has failed to gain the approbation of the commissioners for the improvement of inland navigation of the state of New York," (Messrs. Livingston, Morris and Clinton,) "yet I feel by no means discouraged respecting the final result of the project. The very objections the committee have brought forward, serve only to increase, if possible, my confidence in the superiority of the proposed railways to canals." * * * * This is a remarkable expression for 12th May, 1812. He then points out in pages 4 and 5, railways in a fiscal point of view, their advantages to the general government—"not merely to facilitate most astonishingly internal communication and conveyance, but to furnish new and abundant sources of revenue; they surely ought to command the attention of the general government." * * *

"The extension of the main arteries of such a system * * would by no means be a work of time. It would be exempted totally from the difficulties, casualties, interruptions and delays incident to the formation of canals. Requiring no supply of water, no precision in levelling, the work could be commenced and carried on in various detached parts, and its progress would be rapid." * * * "Ramifications would from time to time be extended. * * They would be the sources of private and public wealth, going hand in hand; increase with a rapidity beyond all parallel." * * "But there remains another view in which this important improvement demands the attention of the general government. The celerity it would afford of communication with the distant sections of our wide extended empire. * * * To the rapidity of the motion of a steam carriage (locomotive) on these railways, no definite limit can be set. The flying proas in the Pacific ocean sail 20 miles the hour. * * * The resistance of the water increases in the square of the velocity of the vessel. * * * Not so with a steam carriage; it moves in a fluid 800 times more rare than water. The resistance will be proportionally diminished. If then a proa can be driven 20 miles per hour by the wind (the propulsive power of which is constantly diminishing as the velocity of the proa increases) through so dense a fluid as water, I can see nothing to hinder a steam carriage from moving on these ways with a velocity of 100 miles an hour. This astonishing velocity is considered as merely possible. It is probable that in practice, it may not be convenient to exceed 20 or 30 miles per hour; actual experiments, however, can alone determine this matter, and I should not be surprised at seeing steam carriages propelled at the rate of 40 or 50 miles per hour." How surprisingly true, and to the letter, on the best English railways! Page 8, he writes, "From local circumstances, these railways are calculated to be pre-eminently useful in the southern states.

[illegible]

From the foregoing extracts from the message "[illegible]" in his documents, appeared to me to [illegible] meeting of a memorial addressed to the [illegible] Feb. 24, [illegible] and the answer to their little [illegible] I [illegible] the fact that [illegible] with so polite success at Washington, than he did at Albany. The road, however, carried me as [illegible] Camden and Amboy railway, and I learn should have the credit of inventing the first iron T rail.

Although it will increase this communication much beyond the limits I had intended, yet I cannot in justice to [illegible] refrain from giving some of the points in his most curious and scientific memorial, the receipt of which is politely acknowledged by the distinguished individuals heretofore named, as from a crazy man, although their persons, friend and companion. It is a curious document, indeed. He commences, "To the Honorable Commissioners, &c."

"The report of the commissioners appointed by the legislature of this state, to explore the route of an inland navigation from Hudson's River to Lake Ontario and Lake Erie, contains a luminous exposition of the vast importance of facilitating the intercourse between the western country and the tide-waters of Hudson's River.

"The plan suggested of bringing the waters of Lake Erie in a canal, on an inclined plane of three hundred miles in length, to communicate with Hudson's River, is unparalleled for the boldness of its conception, and the grandeur of its object.* But the magnitude of such an undertaking must necessarily protract the completion of it to a very distant day, and will have a powerful tendency to make many hesitate respecting the expediency of incurring so heavy an expenditure upon an object presenting so distant a prospect of remuneration. Still, however, I must concur most heartily with the commissioners, when they observe, "that no supposable expense can bear an undue proportion to the value of the work. Thus, were it (by giving loose to fancy) extended to fifty millions of dollars, even that enormous sum does not exceed half the value of what, in all human probability, and at no distant period, will annually be carried along the canal. The more proper question, perhaps, is, in what time can it be effected?"

"But, independently of the great consumption of time and money, incident to so vast an undertaking, there are other circumstances which require serious consideration.

"The contemplated route of this canal lies nearly in an east course from Lake Erie to Albany, and in a high northern latitude, where everything remains locked

* It has been ascertained that this is practicable, at a moderate expense.

up by frost for almost five months during the winter season. Whereas, the southern border of Lake Erie is in a latitude one and a half degree lower, from whence easy communications may be formed with the head waters of the Ohio and the Susquehanna, and but little interrupted by ice.

"These routes, it must be confessed, are very circuitous, and the navigation of the natural rivers, in their present state, very troublesome and tedious. From the nearest point on Lake Erie, to tide-water on the Delaware, at Philadelphia; on the Chesapeake, at Havre de Grace, or Baltimore, in a straight line, is but a few miles farther than to Albany. But to form a practicable navigation to either of those places by means of canals, would make a difference of at least a hundred miles in favor of Albany. But as it respects the nature of the ground through which these canals must pass, there is no comparison; so great and so numerous are the elevations, that the route to Albany is comparatively level. When, in addition to these advantageous circumstances, we take into consideration the decided superiority of the city of New York, in a commercial point of view, it will not be practicable to divert into another channel the current of trade, when once fairly established, from the interior to this city. When, therefore, the immense magnitude of this internal commerce is duly appreciated, every individual inhabitant of this state, but more especially of this city, ought to feel himself interested in the accomplishment of so grand an object.

"From the above view of the subject, it appears that there are two considerations of primary importance to be attended to: First, that this communication with the western country be completed with all possible despatch; and next, that, if practicable, such a mode of effecting the purpose be adopted, as that the travel shall at no time be interrupted.

"Without farther preface, I will now proceed to propose a plan, which, I flatter myself, embraces both these important objects. Let a railway of timber be formed by the nearest practicable route, between Lake Erie and Albany. The angle of elevation in no part to exceed one degree, or such an elevation, whatever it may be, as will admit of wheel-carriages to remain stationary when no power is exerted to impel them forward. This railway, throughout its course, to be supported on pillars, raised from three to five or six feet from the surface of the ground. The carriage-wheels of cast iron, the rims flat, with projecting flanges to fit on the surface of the railways. The moving power to be a steam-engine, nearly similar in construction to that on board the Juliana, a ferry-boat plying between this city and Hoboken.

"It would be altogether unnecessary to go into a detailed description of the mode of adopting and applying the machinery of a steam-engine to the purpose of propelling carriages placed on railways. It is sufficient to say, that I feel the fullest confidence in being able to convince an experienced and skilful engineer of the entire practicability of the plan.

"I shall now attempt to explain the many and important advantages resulting from carrying this plan into effect:

"In the first place, as to expense. On the most exaggerated scale of calculation, the expense of such a railway would not exceed that of an ordinary turnpike road with a good coat of gravel on it.

"Second—The far greater part of the work can be performed by common laborers, and, as no accuracy of levelling would be required, it may be commenced and carried on in as many different places as may be found expedient. It might, therefore, be accomplished with ease in one or two seasons.

"Third—From its elevation above the surface of the ground, the timber of which the railway is framed, will be little subject to decay; and from this elevation, too, the travel on it can never be interrupted, as it will be raised above the ordinary level of the deepest snows.

"Fourth—These railways, from the nature of their construction, will be free from the numerous casualties to which canals are liable.

"Fifth—The expense of transportation would be much less than on a canal of the best construction. To prove this, a summary calculation will be necessary.

"The commissioners inform us, (under the authority of Mr. Latrobe,) that 'by the aid of a railway. one horse would transport eight tons, supposing the angle of ascent not to exceed one degree.'

"In Nicholson's journal, is an account of one horse transporting for several miles on a railway, the enormous weight of more than fifty tons.

"A small steam-engine, then, of ten inches diameter,* worked with steam, the elastic power of which was fifty pounds to the circular inch, would possess a power equal to five thousand pounds, on the whole area of the piston, moving with a velocity of three feet in a second. This exceeds the power of twenty horses; but one horse, as above stated, can transport on a railway eight tons, and twenty horses would, at the same rate, transport one hundred and sixty tons.

"But, after making every possible reduction for exaggeration, we may fairly state in round numbers, that a steam-engine, with a cylinder of ten inches diameter, worked on the above principles, would be capable of transporting on a railway, one hundred tons, at the rate of four miles per hour. It must be recollected, that Mr. Latrobe's estimate above stated, is founded on an ascent of one degree. Now, this would give an elevation of ninety-two feet and upwards for every mile. The whole difference of elevation, estimated by the commissioners, between the tide-water at Albany, and the surface of Lake Erie, is five hundred and twenty-five feet. To gain this ascent, therefore, would require somewhat less than six miles. This bears so small a proportion to the whole distance, that it would be in a trifling degree erroneous to consider the whole distance as one level. This would much more than compensate for an increase of the rate of velocity in the steam-carriage, from two and a half miles, to four miles an hour; especially, when we advert to the well-authenticated experiment above stated, viz: that a horse is capable of transporting more than fifty tons on a level railway, whereas the above is founded on an estimate of only five tons to each horse. We will now proceed to estimate the expense per ton, of this mode of transportation:

"The steam-engine of the above mentioned size, would require about a cord of wood to keep it constantly going for the whole twenty-four hours; but to silence all cavil, we will state the consumption of wood at three cord a day. Wood, at an average throughout the whole distance, may be procured for one dollar a cord, but we will estimate it at two dollars a cord. To attend the fire, and perform any other services that may be required, we will allow four men, at one dollar each per day, is four dollars; which, added to the cost of three cords of wood, would make ten dollars a day. The whole distance, then, of two hundred and eighty miles, from Lake Erie to Albany, would be travelled in three days. Say the back load would average only one-third of a full freight, there would then remain five days, at ten dollars a day, amounting to fifty dollars, for the expense of transporting one hundred tons of produce a distance of two hundred and eighty miles, which is at the rate of fifty cents per ton. But the commissioners have estimated the expense of transportation through the contemplated canal, from Lake Erie to Hudson's River, at three dollars per ton.

"In the above calculation, interest on the capital expended, wear and tear, and repairs of machinery, carriages, railways, etc., and no doubt many other incidental charges, are not included. But, were we even to double the rate of transportation, raising it from fifty cents to one dollar per ton, still it would amount to only one-third of what the commissioners have stated as above. But, if the construction of railways would require only about one-fourth of the capital estimated for a canal, and the transportation thereon could be afforded at one dollar per ton, instead of three dollars, it is easy to see what an immense revenue the state might derive from toll, and still permit transportation to be performed for much less than it could be done by a canal.

"But here I expect to be encountered at the very threshold—to be stigmatized as a visionary projector. Have not, it will be said, steam-engines and railways been long in use in England? And should it be practicable to apply them to such immense advantage in the improvement of transportation, would it not have been done in that country long ago? To this *argumentum ad hominem*, thanks to the enterprise and active genius of our citizens, we are now furnished with

* Equal to 70 lbs. per square inch.

ready and conclusive answers. Mr. Latrobe, in a memoir published in the third volume of the transactions of the American Philosophical Society, animadverting on the projects 'for propelling boats by steam-engines,' uses these remarkable expressions: 'A sort of mania began to prevail, which indeed has not yet entirely subsided.' It is surely unnecessary to say, that in despite of the formidable objections, (no less than six,) he has urged, 'from which,' as he tells us, 'no particular mode of application can be free;' in despite of these anathemas, the project, as we all with pleasure can testify, has completely succeeded. Another gentleman in the American Medical and Philosophical Register, for April, 1811, has given a demonstration to prove that a small obstacle would be sufficient to stop a carriage impelled by a steam-engine. That on roads perfectly hard and smooth, it could not ascend an inclined plane of seven or eight degrees; and concludes with saying, that 'in whatever point of view we place this subject, we shall be more and more convinced of its futility.' He, however, in another place expresses himself as follows: 'If roads were perfectly hard, smooth, and level, such an engine would probably have the advantage over common carriages, because a small power, continually exerted, would give a degree of velocity that could not be supported by horses.' This admission is amply sufficient to defend the plan now proposed, against the force of his demonstration, and renders it unnecessary to go into any investigation to point out its defects.

"If, then, notwithstanding the host of objections, 'from which no particular plan can be free,' the steam-engine has been successfully applied to propelling boats, we surely need not despair of applying it with success also to propelling carriages. But, surely the mere novelty and magnitude of the proposed improvement ought not to startle us. We are too apt to look up with reverential awe, to what has usually been called the mother country, for every improvement in the arts, without considering how recent has been the introduction and establishment of these arts in that very country.

"It is but about a century ago that the first crude attempts to apply the power of steam to useful purposes were made; and it is as it were but yesterday, that the Duke of Bridgewater first introduced canals, which have since been so astonishingly multiplied in that country. And, as to railways, they are of a much more recent date, and are at present very limited in their use and application. A project, therefore, promising such vast improvement in the transportation of commodities to and from the interior of our country, if not stamped with absurdity on the very face of it, surely merits the most serious consideration; and, on this occasion, I have every reason to felicitate myself on my good fortune. When I reflect on the high standing in society, and enlightened patriotism of the gentlemen, who are in the first instance to pass judgment on the plan I have proposed, I feel perfectly satisfied that its real merits, whatever they may be, will be duly appreciated.

"It may be objected, that although the elevation of the railways may secure them in a great measure from decay, yet the constant transit of the wheels over them, will very soon wear them out, in a like manner as we see happens to the plank on bridges. But the cases are by no means similar. As the plank on bridges are laid crossways, the warping of the plank, and the enlargement of the cracks or seams between each, causes inequalities in the surface; this produces more or less jolting in the motion of the wheels or carriages passing over. But what tends still more to wear away the plank, are the heads of the nails in the tire of the wheels, and also the nails and calks in the horse-shoes; whereas, the surface of both the railways, and the rims of the carriage-wheels, are made in the first instance perfectly smooth, and free from all inequalities of surface, and as the rims of the wheels will always continue so, the railways can never be affected by anything except mere pressure; I should presume, therefore, that they will be but little subject to wear. But wherever this wear takes place, they can be renewed again at a trifling expense. But should, contrary to expectation, experience prove these railways to be so subject to wear, as that the frequency of their renewal becomes inconvenient and expensive, recourse could be had at any time to cast or plated iron railways, which, without any further trouble and expense,

could be fastened on the top of the wooden railways.* I would beg leave to suggest, that an experiment, by which the real value of the plan now proposed might be completely and satisfactorily ascertained, could be made for a few thousand dollars.

"As the power of the engine is expended principally in overcoming friction, which is increased in but a small degree by an increase in velocity, and may be removed almost entirely by using friction wheels, a carriage may be made, by a small increase of power, to acquire a velocity far greater than could be given by the fleetest horses; and as, too, the railways must be incomparably better than the best turnpike road could possibly be made, I am by no means prepared to say what limits may be set to the rapidity with which a carriage may be driven on these ways." JOHN STEVENS.

*New York, February* 24, 1812.

Col. Stevens then goes into a calculation to show the superior cheapness of transportation on railways compared with canals, also as regards their comparative cost. The following is an extract from a letter to Col. J. Stevens, of Robert R. Livingston in reply, dated "Albany, March 11, 1812."

"DEAR SIR :—I did not till yesterday receive yours of the 25th Feb. Where it has loitered on the road, I am at a loss to say. I had before read your very ingenious propositions, as to the railway communication. I fear, however, on mature reflection, that they will be liable to serious objections, and ultimately, more expensive than a canal, without being so convenient."

He then dismisses the subject with objections. On the 16th March, Col. S. answers these objections in an elaborate manner, extending over six pages, addressed to Gouverneur Morris, Esq., chairman of the board of inland navigation, which I omit, as his answer to the canal commissioners mainly covers the same ground.

Gouverneur Morris, on the 16th March, 1812, writes to Col. Stevens from Albany, as follows :—"I am directed by the Board of Commissioners to transmit the enclosed copy of a report made by the committee to which your letter was referred."

"The committee to whom was referred the communication from John Stevens, Esq., recommending the construction of a wooden railway, report :—That they have considered the same communication with the attention due to a gentleman whose scientific researches and knowledge of mechanical powers entitle his opinions to great respect, and are sorry not to concur in them.

"Mr. Stevens proposes a railway, on which a steam-engine is to propel, by a force equal to the competent number of horses, one hundred tons, at the rate of four miles an hour.

"As horses move on the earth, when drawing a weight, it is believed that an equal power must, to produce the same effect, have sufficient hold on the earth; and it is doubted whether an engine in a wagon can work it forward with as much advantage as horses on a road.

"If the engine turn the wheels, and propel the weight by their friction on the railways, it may be questioned whether the effect will equal expectation.

"The rims of the wheels, (however accurate,) will, it is apprehended, impede (by their friction) the progressive motion. Such at least would be the case, were the wagon drawn by horses.

"Friction must be increased if the logs of the railway should warp. And it may be doubted whether workmen could be found of sufficient skill, (even could they have a choice of seasoned timber,) to prevent the warping of logs by change of weather, from hot to cold, and from wet to dry.

* In Doc. page 40, Col. S. proposes "bar iron of half an inch thick, and four inches broad, twenty-four pounds per foot—$7,603 per mile."

"If the rims and railway should not fit exactly, there might result such variance of direction, as would bring the rims to cut the rails. But if the wheels fit exactly when the logs are green or wet, they can do so no longer when the logs become seasoned and dry. If, on the contrary, the railway should be constructed of dry and seasoned stuff, wheels when well fitted to it, would, when rain or damp air had swollen the rails, be squeezed along with difficulty.

"Supposing, nevertheless, that non-elastic incompressible railways were so constructed as not to warp, the slightest failure of foundation on either side would give a bias, which, (to use a workman's phrase,) throwing it out of truth, might occasion its destruction by lateral pressure.

"But the result just mentioned would be produced, unless foundations are laid below the power of frost, and of materials sufficiently solid to bear the great incumbent pressure proposed in the shock of rapid motion.

"And thus we are definitely led to ask whether a railway can be constructed of sufficient strength. It is proposed that one hundred tons be put in motion on it, at the rate of four miles per hour, which is nearly two yards in a second. If this motion were produced by force fixed to the earth, it must not only be equal to the weight multiplied into the velocity, but as much greater as would be needful to overcome the resistance of friction. No formula has yet been discovered by which to calculate the proportion between power, friction, and effect; but experience has demonstrated, that friction is always a deduction from power. Where that operates (as is supposed to be intended on the present occasion) by friction, at the circumference of wheels, overcoming that which is at their axis, (and propelling so great a weight,) the deduction must be greater than in common cases. Put it, however, for the present, at nothing, and for the weight of wagon, steam-engine, and fuel, allow nothing; still, we shall have force one hundred, and weight one hundred, (together two hundred,) working with a velocity of four miles per hour by friction, on a railway. It does not seem probable that a way could be made of sufficient strength.

"But, if it can, the committee conceive that it must be composed of materials much more solid and durable than wood. Moreover, as it is self-evident that the same way will not serve for carriages going and returning, the expense, which would (it is conceived) for a single way exceed that of a canal, must be doubled, and would therefore render the construction unadvisable, were it sanctioned by experience."*

To this state document, Col. Stevens fully replies, as follows:

"The objections urged against the proposed railways in the above report of the committee, appear to me so void of real foundation, that I am constrained to repeat again the sentiment I have already expressed in my answer to the objections brought forward by Mr. Livingston. These objections 'have only served to establish more firmly in my mind the very favorable sentiments I entertain respecting the practical utility of the proposed railways.'

"The respect, however, due to the gentlemen who constituted this committee, prompts me to give the following answer:

"It is an established principle, resulting from the laws of motion, that all bodies are indifferent to a state of motion or rest. When, therefore, by any means, a determinate velocity is given to a body, that body would continue to move ad infinitum, with the velocity originally impressed upon it, were it not resisted by some other force or power. Thus, were we to suppose a sphere or cylinder, perfectly hard and smooth, to be set in motion upon a horizontal plain, also perfectly smooth and hard, it would revolve round the earth forever, were it not impeded by the resistance of the atmosphere. Gravity, in this case, would have no tendency either to retard or accelerate its motion, as the action of gravity would always be exerted in a direction perpendicular to the line of motion. But a railway cannot, in practice, be constructed of materials perfectly hard and smooth;

* A true copy from the minutes, signed John L. Morton, Secretary to the Canal Commissioners.

and, although friction rollers in the hubs of the wheels would take off from the axis a large share of friction, yet still there would remain a considerable quantity to be overcome; what this would amount to in practice, cannot theoretically be precisely ascertained. However, the fact of one horse drawing on a railway upwards of fifty tons for several miles, furnishes sufficient data to calculate upon. We may certainly, with great safety, estimate a steam-engine of a two horse power, adequate to the purpose of giving motion to one hundred tons weight, on a horizontal railway. But it is proposed to give to this railway, where necessary, an ascent of one degree. On these occasions, then, there will be required a power equal to somewhat more than one-sixtieth part of the whole weight of one hundred tons; we will call it three thousand five hundred pounds. This, added to the two horse power, necessary to overcome friction, etc., on a horizontal plain, would make a sum total of four thousand pounds. But I have stated already the power of the steam-engine at five thousand pounds. But Mr. Latrobe has estimated that 'by the aid of a railway, one horse would transport eight tons, supposing the angle of ascent not to exceed one degree.' One hundred tons, then, would require twelve and a half horses, allowing two hundred and fifty pounds for each horse; the power of twelve and a half horses would equal only three thousand one hundred and twenty-five pounds, instead of four thousand, as above estimated. But when it is considered that more than nineteen-twentieths of the whole distance will be nearly on a horizontal level,* which would require no more than a two or three horse power, instead of twenty, at which the engine is estimated, we surely need not apprehend a deficiency of power. But, 'as horses move on the earth, when drawing a weight, it is believed that an equal power must, to produce the same effect, have suffiicient hold on the earth; and it is doubted whether an engine in a wagon can work it forward with as much advantage as horses on a road.'

"I must confess I cannot perceive the force of this objection; and fearful that it might contain something which had escaped my attention, I submitted it to a number of scientific gentlemen, who unanimously concur with me, that, provided the wheels do not slip on the ways, the whole power of the engine is exerted to the best advantage in propelling the carriage forward. There will, no doubt, in proportion as the shackle-pin approaches to, or recedes from the periphery of the wheel, be a difference in the relative velocity of the carriage and the piston; whereas, the horse and the carriage always move forward with the same velocity.

"'If the engine turn the wheels, and propel the weight by their friction on the railway, it may be questioned whether the effect will equal expectation.'

"No friction (except at the hubs) results from the revolutions of the wheels on the railways. Resistance will, however, occur in proportion to the frequency and magnitude of the elevations and depressions of the railways, and their deviations from a horizontal plain.

"'The rims of the wheels, however accurate, will, it is apprehended, impede, by their friction, the progressive motion. Such at least would be the case, were the wagon drawn by horses.'

"It has just now been stated, that no friction, whatever, takes place at the rims of the wheels of a carriage on a railway. This would invariably be the case, whether the carriage were propelled by horses or by a steam-engine.

"But the timber of these railways would be liable to warp. I would propose to construct the ways of white pine, twelve inches deep, and six wide at bottom, reduced to four at top, and of as great a length as can conveniently be had, say fifty or sixty feet. Now, if the supports are thirteen feet apart, these pieces will rest on them in five or six different places, where they can be confined immoveably. Under such circumstances, it is not possible they should warp. As pine, although sufficiently strong to support the weight of the carriages, would be too soft for the rims of the wheels to run on, cap-pieces of oak, two inches thick, and four inches wide, must be fastened on the top of the rails.

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* Between Lake Erie and the Hudson River the descent is 565 feet in 320 miles, by railways, being less than two feet to the mile. J. E. E.

"But these rails will be liable to shrink and swell with 'the changes of the weather, from hot to cold, and from wet to dry.' From the observations I have made on this subject, the greatest variations of dimension in a piece of timber of four inches wide, does not, from the joint operation of these causes, exceed the eighth of an inch; but were it even half an inch, the effects apprehended by the committee could never occur. The extremities of the rims of the wheels should be about two inches deep, and curving outwards in such a manner as merely to squeeze the rail, when on any variation of direction; the projections of the rims should be made to come in contact with either side of the rails. As, however, the wheels to which the shackle-pins are fixed, are wedged fast on each end of an axis revolving with them, they are necessarily prevented from deviating from the line of draught. And, as the carriages which are drawn behind, are firmly attached to each other, they must all pursue one course.

"For these reasons, I still continue decidedly of opinion, that wooden railways will answer well in practice, and be but little subject to wear. But should experience hereafter prove the fallacy of the ideas I now entertain respecting wooden railways, recourse could at any time be had to iron. Not one shilling of unnecessary expense would be incurred. The iron, whether wrought or cast, could be fastened on the top of the wooden rails, and the business would be done. All the objections which have been urged against wood, as an unfit material, would thus be completely obviated.

"But it would be essentially necessary that 'foundations be laid below the power of frost, and of materials sufficiently solid.' And should it also be found necessary that the wheels should be made to run on iron, the committee gave it as their opinion that the expense would exceed more than double that of a canal.

"In support of this assertion, they exhibit no proofs, they advance no calculations. The commissioners themselves acknowledge that with respect to a canal, 'it would be unpardonably presumptuous, should they pretend to accuracy of calculation.' The truth is, as I have elsewhere observed, that any estimation of the cost of a canal, such as is contemplated, must, from the nature of the business, be in a great measure conjectural. In their former report, they have stated it at five millions, and in their late report they sum up the whole expense at six millions of dollars.* Nine-tenths, or perhaps ninety-nine one-hundredths of this expense will be incurred for labor bestowed principally in excavating ground at present unexplored. Without taking into calculation, then, the great want of economy and gross abuses which ever attend all public works, there is every reason to believe that were the estimate of the commissioners doubled, it would fall far short of the ultimate cost of the proposed canal. But, as has been already well observed in the former report of the commissioners, the magnitude of the expense is not an object of the first moment. Were a canal to cost ten times as much as the proposed railways, if decidedly preferable, the difference of expense should by no means prevent its being carried into effect. And so, on the contrary, should the railways be found most convenient and eligible, the difference in expense ought not to be regarded."

Here follows a comparison of the cost of a canal with a railway. In this calculation, Mr. Stevens estimates with admirable precision, as experience has since proved, "that with a flat iron bar, half an inch thick, and four inches wide," his road placed "on brick or stone pillars, five to six feet above the surface of the ground," that, "estimating the whole distance between Albany and Buffalo at 300 miles, the railway with a single track, (exclusive of motive power and right of way) may be accomplished at a cost of $3,950,900, or equal to $13,300 per mile." This is a remarkable calculation. The average cost of road-bed, flat bar, and superstructure, from Troy to Buffalo, exclusive of motive power and right of way, will not exceed $15,000 per mile, while the Attica and Buffalo railroad costs less than $10,000 per mile.

* The Erie and Champlain Canals when finished cost $8,000,000, and the Erie Canal $7,000,000. J. K. B.

I have been more prolix in these extracts than was necessary, to disprove Mr. Williams' pretensions to the invention of the locomotive, and the principle of its adhesive quality, of which this gentleman claims to be the first discoverer in this country, and which he supposes Mr. R. Stephenson to have adopted, in England, on his suggestion! I am aware, that about 1821, a German engineer, Mr. Fredricks, of Hanover, invented a locomotive with cogs, that propelled a wagon with four tons, the plans and model of which was taken to England, where Thomas Gray, of Exeter, introduced it. As Col. Stevens' book was published by T. & J. Swords, No. 160 Pearl-street, New York, in 1812, from the details of which, I have made liberal quotations, it is reasonable to suppose that Mr. Stephenson availed himself of its suggestions, in 1829, when he constructed the "Novelty," for the Liverpool and Manchester railway, and thus decided the directors of that road to use steam instead of horse power. Their first intention, was horse power. This power was advocated by Mr. Wood, called "the father of railways," on which subject he wrote a book, and stated, "It is far from my wish to promulgate to the world, that the ridiculous expectations of the enthusiastic speculatist will be realized, and that we shall see engines travelling at the rate of 12, 16, 18 and 20 miles an hour. Nothing can do more harm toward the adoption of the locomotive or its general improvement, than the promulgation of such nonsense." It was under these impressions in 1829, that the directors of the Liverpool and Manchester railway offered the premium of £500 to the best steam-engine, (taken by Mr. Stephenson) "to draw 20 tons at the rate of 10 miles an hour." More, the directors then did not ask for; and as if to evince how perfectly they agreed with Mr. Wood, as to the "nonsense" of expecting more, they selected that gentleman to be one of the judges of their competition premium.

I may be in error as to my views of Col. Stevens being the first inventor of a locomotive engine; if so, I shall be happy to be corrected. Certain it is, there was no one at his day, who predicted with such certainty its powers for quick motion, or described its proportions. It is true, I believe, that Henry Meigs, Esq., of New York, when in our legislature, 1817, before the Erie canal was commenced, promulgated five or six years after Stevens, the heterodox doctrine of "propelling loaded boats on dry land by steam," and then advocated "wide railways with wheels of large diameter, for locomotives, to send them forward sixty miles per hour." It is said, that even with his fine talents, he lost his influence in the legislature, and by a majority was considered a subject fit for a strait-jacket, like Col. Stevens in his day. Such is often the fate of enterprise, with the slow calculating capitalists. In the year 1836, after conducting a survey through Westchester county, to test the feasibility of a railway, on the east side of the Hudson river, interior to Albany, I was asked, if "I was really so crazy as to propose a railway along the margin of the noble Hudson river, to compete with the steamboats." On my reply, "it was by a remarkable and nearly level route, (30 feet to the mile) through the interior, where there were rich farmers to supply our markets daily with our wants"—the plan was pronounced "not so visionary." At the present day, there are found capitalists, who give notice that they will apply to the present legislature for a railway, "on the margin of the river," to compete with the first steamboats in the world.

Jos. E. Bloomfield.

## Art. VI.—THE TARIFF OF 1842.

In the report of Mr. Walker, Secretary of State, upon the finances of the United States, and his recommendation for the improvement of the revenue, which by law he is required to make, he has adopted some new principles which are worthy of great consideration. They are directly opposed to the principle upon which the revenue has been levied and collected since the adoption of the constitution. They are worthy of the grave consideration of the whole body of the merchants, as their business will be greatly affected. The first we propose to notice, is the abolition of specific duties and the substitution of ad valorem duties.

Upon this great change in the collection of the revenue, we hazard the opinion that no merchant practically acquainted with mercantile pursuits, will agree with him. The great argument in favor of specific duties is, that all will pay an equal duty, and in case of a drawback of the duties, all will know what it is. With respect to ad valorem duties, every person who makes a shipment of merchandise to the United States, fixes his own valuation. Let us suppose a planter in the island of Cuba to make a shipment of the produce of his plantation, consisting of sugar, to this country. He will invoice it at the lowest price that in his opinion it will pass through our custom-house without seizure. The sugars of Brazil, other ports of South America, and the West Indies, will be invoiced at different prices, however fair and honorable the shippers may be. The drawback of duties, in case of exportation, will be different upon each shipment. In many instances, from the difference in the cost of production, and the reduction for the purpose of evading the duties, it will be very great. Upon exportation, therefore, a merchant must ascertain the amount of the duties, to know the amount of the drawback.

Let us now view the actual state of our trade with France. Notwithstanding the tariff of 1842 imposed specific duties, as far as was practicable, on silks by the pound, yet many articles, indeed a great majority, pay an ad valorem duty. Availing himself of the ad valorem duty, the French manufacturer fixes his own valuation to his shipments to this country. They may be invoiced 20 or 25 per cent less than he sells to the American merchant, or even more, if in his opinion the invoice will pass our custom-house. With respect to French fancy goods, there is not a definite and certain value affixed; as to other articles of merchandise, there is therefore less risk of seizure. But the consequence is, that the great part of the merchandise from France paying an ad valorem duty, is shipped by French manufacturers, and the business is engrossed by them. The American agents, who have been for years resident in Paris to purchase French manufactures, are obliged to leave their business and return to the United States. The same remark may be made with respect to the trade with England. By far the greatest proportion is monopolized by the English manufacturer. The respectable and numerous class of American merchants, who have imported the ad valorem goods from England and France, is now diminishing every year.

It is of some importance to mention the fact, that public opinion in Europe rather sustains any one who makes an advantageous mercantile operation in a foreign country in this manner. It is supposed to be the evidence of ability to transact business advantageously. In this country,

we are conscious that the duties paid to the custom-house, are paid to the support of the government of our choice, and are honestly devoted to it. But public opinion in Europe is very different, as the duties are mostly levied for the support of the kings and nobility.

The Secretary of the Treasury assumes another principle in his report, which is at variance with the experience of this country and the nations of Europe. "Experience proves, that as a general rule, a duty of 20 per cent ad valorem will yield the largest revenue." Now, in the year 1842, the tariff was reduced by the compromise to an average of 24 per cent on the whole amount of merchandise imported, paying duty. What was the result? Not an increase of duties, but a reduction of the duties to a sum less than $13,000,000. The amount was so much less than had been previously received, that the government was nearly bankrupt. What is the experience of the nations of Europe of the effect of high duties? England and France derive immense revenue from duties upon tobacco, spirits, sugar, coffee and tea, varying from 50 to 1600 per cent; upon each of these articles, many millions of dollars. Considered in any respect, the principle is unsound, and at variance with the experience of all nations.

It is stated in his argument upon the tariff, "that the wages of labor had not augmented, since the tariff of 1842, and that in some cases, they have diminished." This assertion is not sustained by any proofs. Now the price of labor in Lowell, regulates the rate in New England. In 1842, the six or seven thousand females who are employed in the factories received $1 50 a week and their board. They now receive $2 a week and their board. The difference is 33 1-3 per cent. Many other instances might be mentioned, but it is unnecessary to adduce more. Now every establishment is in full operation, and there is a great demand for labor at full prices. In 1842, one-half of the mills were stopped, and the wages were reduced.

With respect to the minimums, the Secretary recommends the entire abolition, upon the ground, "that in some instances the cottons pay a duty of 131 per cent, and that there is an average discrimination against the poor, on cotton imports, of 82 per cent, beyond what they would be, if assessed on the actual value." Now, what is the actual state of the case? These low cottons are manufactured here as low, and sold as low, as they are in Great Britain. The poor are supplied at lower prices than they would be, if there was no duty on them by the charges of importation, instead of 131 per cent duty. This is known to every merchant of any intelligence, and is proved by the shipment of several millions in value of these cottons, annually, to Asia, Africa, and South America. In these markets, they stand a fair competition with English cottons, and in some instances have driven them out of the market. Indeed, three or four thousand bales are annually sold in Calcutta, a British possession, under a duty of 15 per cent, which has been recently levied.

The question will be, naturally, why these minimums were introduced into the tariff. The minimum value was prepared by Mr. Lowndes, a distinguished politician of South Carolina, with a view to encourage the manufacture of cotton. The minimum value of 20 cents the square yard was fixed upon, with a view to prevent the importation of coarse cottons from India, which in some instances were purchased at a lower rate. The United States were at that period exclusively supplied with coarse cottons from India. The result of the introduction of these minimums into

the tariff, is the entire change of the course of trade. We now ship cargoes of these cottons to the same places from which we imported them twenty years since.

The minimums are now useless and inoperative, with respect to cottons, as we have acquired so much skill in the manufacture, that they cannot be imported at any duty. They are, however, important to the general interest of the manufacturer; they secure the home market, and prevent frauds upon the revenue, by undervaluation; but principally in the manufacture of fine cottons, particularly printed calicoes, in which so much skill has not yet been attained, as to be well sustained without them. The time is rapidly approaching, when, from improvements in machinery, and more experience, they may be with safety abolished.

The charge of the Secretary of the Treasury against the tariff of 1842, that it operates oppressively upon the poor, does not appear to be sustained. So far from it, the greatest part of the cottons consumed in the United States, are purchased as low as they are sold in England. Indeed, the cottons are purchased 50 per cent lower, than they could have been, without a protective tariff, as they would have been subject to a duty, and charges of importation. The protective tariff directed the skill and capital of our people to the manufacture. These remarks will apply to every article which is manufactured by the power-loom, of which we produce the raw material; especially wool. We now produce some articles of woollen manufacture as low as they are produced in England. The woollen manufactures some years since were prostrated by the high duty upon foreign wool. This duty on wool nearly neutralized the protective duty of 40 per cent upon imported woollens. In consequence, one-half of the establishments for the woollen manufacture were for a time abandoned. As the United States did not then produce sufficient wool for the consumption of the manufacturer, the price of wool was graduated by the price at which it could be imported from England, the greatest market. The American manufacturer then paid nearly 50 per cent more for his wool than the English manufacturer. But owing to the operation of the tariff, by its high duty on wool, for the protection of the farmer, we now export wool to a considerable extent to England. The American manufacturer now purchases his wool as low, or lower, than the English manufacturer. As the same causes produce the same effects, with the same improvements in machinery in the woollen manufacture, that we have in the cotton, we may anticipate the same result; not only a supply of our own market at reduced prices, but a considerable export. These advantages are sure to be realized, unless the tariff is so much reduced as to break down the manufacturing establishments. H. G. B.

# MERCANTILE LAW CASES.

BILLS OF EXCHANGE, ETC.—AN IMPORTANT DECISION.

In the Commercial Court, (New Orleans,) Judge Watts presiding.—A. Lanfear & Co. *v.* R. D. Blossman.

It is not a little singular that a court on the banks of the Mississippi should be called upon to give law to London; nevertheless, as they have seen fit to invoke the aid of this tribunal, I shall proceed to decide upon the rights of the parties, according to the best of my ability. I acknowledge myself greatly indebted to the counsel for the assistance which they have rendered to the court in the argument of the cause. It is proper to observe that a special jury of merchants was summoned in the case, but the parties have seen fit to waive the jury, and refer the matter to the decision of the court, as well upon the facts as the law.

On the 23d day of February, 1843, the defendant, Blossman, applied to Lanfear & Co., discounters, or buyers of bills of exchange, to cash his draft, or bill of exchange, of that date, on De Tastet & Co., of London, for the sum of £3,324 4s. 3d. sterling. The bill was drawn in the usual form, to the order of the drawer, at sixty days after sight, and endorsed by him in blank; the bill of exchange was accompanied by a bill of lading for 344 bales of cotton, shipped by the "Provincialist." The bill of lading was filled to deliver to the order of Blossman, and endorsed by him also in blank. The bill of exchange, thus accompanied, was negotiated to Prime, Ward & King, of New York, and by them, as is alleged, negotiated to Barings & Co. of London. De Tastet & Co. offered to accept the bills of exchange, when presented to them for that purpose, provided Barings & Co. would deliver up the bills of lading; the bills of lading being refused, the bills of exchange were protested for non-acceptance, and ultimately for non-payment, and Blossman duly notified thereof. The cotton was taken possession of and sold by Barings & Co., but did not produce a sufficient sum to cover the bills of exchange. It is alleged that Prime, Ward & King paid the deficiency to the Barings, and that Lanfear & Co. have refunded this sum to Prime, Ward & King, and the real object of the present action is to recover the deficiency so paid, with damages, interest, cost of protest, etc. I see nothing special in the particular circumstances of the present case, but consider that the court is called upon to decide the naked and abstract question as to what are the rights of a holder of a bill of exchange, acompanied by a bill of lading, to wit: whether, as a general rule, such holder is bound to give up the bill of lading, on the acceptance of the bill of exchange, or whether he is entitled to retain it until the payment of the bill of exchange; and on the other hand, whether, suppose that the drawee is bound in other respects to accept the bill of exchange, he can refuse such acceptance, if the bill of lading be withheld, and thus throw the shipment, and all the consequent damages, on the holder of the bill of exchange, by reason of his refusal to deliver up the bill of lading. For the purpose of deciding this question, we shall at first assume that the drawee is in good mercantile standing, and that his credit has not been impaired since the bill was drawn, so as to place him in failing circumstances.

The grand division of contracts is into express and implied. Express contracts are those in which the parties have minutely provided for all the details of their agreement. Implied contracts are those in which, from one or two substantive acts of the parties, there flow a variety of consequences and inferences which materially affect their rights. Commercial contracts are so numerous, multifarious and transitory, that business could not be transacted if the parties were required to reduce to express agreement, either verbal or written, all the details of their contracts. Hence they are left to be governed by direct inferences from one or two substantive acts of the parties, or by such customs and usages as are found convenient in the transaction of business. Commercial contracts are not out of the pale of the principles of law relative to contracts generally, but those

principles of the law of contracts receive modifications from the customs and usages of trade, and even the most positive rules of law bend to such usages when they are clear and explicit.

I shall examine the question presented in this case under both points of view.

First—What are the legal consequences and inferences to be deduced from the act of the drawer of a bill of exchange and shipper of cotton presenting such bill of exchange accompanied by a bill of lading to a capitalist or banker for discount? In such an act, there is a direct implication that the bill of exchange is drawn against the property covered by the bill of lading; in such cases the property covered by the bill of lading, or to avoid periphrasis, we will say the cotton, is either bought by virtue of orders given by the foreign house on whom the bill is drawn; in which case, the bill of exchange is to be considered as drawn to pay for the cotton, or else it is a shipment by the drawer of the bill of exchange, of cotton bought for his own account and risk; and the bill of exchange is to be considered as a demand on the English house, to make an advance upon the cotton thus shipped to their consignment. If the cotton has been bought by virtue of orders given, it is easy to perceive that the English house may refuse to accept, on the ground that their orders have been violated or departed from in some particulars, which authorizes them to refuse acceptance. In the present case, a very intelligent witness gave it as his opinion that the orders had been violated so as to authorize De Tastet & Co. to refuse acceptance; perhaps I do not concur in this opinion, and I do not cite it as bearing upon the case, because acceptance was not refused on the ground, but only to illustrate the general principle of the risk which the buyers of those bills run, when they purchase or discount them. On the other hand, if the bill of exchange is a demand for an advance on the shipment, made on the shipper's account, the house on whom the bill of exchange is drawn, may refuse to accept, because it considers the advance exceeds the value of the property, which may also come to a falling market, and the house may be unwilling to become the creditors of the drawer of the bill of exchange. The bill of exchange, in its inception, is an incomplete contract, and is only rendered complete by the acceptance of the person on whom it is drawn.

It is manifest that such are the facts and circumstances out of which the double contract springs, and that they ought to regulate and govern the rights of the parties.

From these various facts and circumstances, to wit: 1st. That when a bill of exchange is accompanied by a bill of lading, there is a direct implication that the bill of exchange is drawn for the payment of, or as an advance upon the shipment; 2nd. That the bill of exchange at the place where it is drawn, is an incomplete contract; and for the reasons above stated, may never be completed by the acceptance; I draw the direct inference that the bill of lading accompanies the bill of exchange, in order to insure the completion of the contract; or if it should be refused, to protect the holder and the drawer of the bill of exchange from the consequences of the refusal to accept, by applying the proceeds of the property upon which the bill of exchange was grounded, to the discharge of the obligation of the drawer. There is another point of view strongly illustrative of the rights of the parties. Blossman is a vender, or a quasi vender of the cotton, on a credit of sixty days, after the presentation of the bills of exchange for acceptance. If he presented himself in person, or through an agent, he would have a right to demand the acceptance of the bills, but he must surrender the property, to wit: the bill of lading; he would not have a right to demand payment, or to retain bills of lading until payment; such a proceeding would be contrary to the rights of De Tastet & Co. on the face of the papers, as it would be turning a credit contract into a cash one. Lanfear & Co., and any subsequent holder of the bill, only acquired the rights of Blossman, and are subject to the same obligations. The corollary from these premises is, that when the main contract is completed, to wit: the bill of exchange is accepted, the holder is immediately bound to surrender the bill of lading to the accepter. These principles seem to be so plain, simple and conclusive, that it appears extraordinary that any difference of opinion should exist on the subject. Having arrived at this conclusion, it may

be well to examine some of the principal arguments urged by the counsel of the plaintiffs for the opposite rule of right, to wit: That the holder of a bill of exchange has a right to require its acceptance, and also to retain the bill of lading until payment of the bill of exchange—they are tacked together, and cannot be separated. This is obviously to beg the question, without looking to the original elements of the contract. It will be seen at once that such a mode of proceeding would place the accepter wholly in the hands of the other party; his name and credit would be out for the acceptance, and the bill-holder would also have the full and entire control of the property, during the whole usances of the bill of exchange. There might be no danger if all the bills were held by the Barings, but bills may get into the hands of the firm of John Doe and Richard Roe, notorious for their want of responsibility. The original bill-taker, and every subsequent one, is bound to know the standing of the party upon whom the bill is drawn; but from the very nature of the bills of exchange, it is utterly impossible to know into whose hands they may come when they are presented for acceptance. The rules of business have become relaxed by competition. Formerly, merchants of high standing would only accept against consignments to the amount of two-thirds of the value of the property at the place of destination, on receipt of bills of lading and orders to effect insurance; and if any limited price was fixed, which could not be obtained within six months after the bills matured, the advance must be refunded. It was considered as an imperative rule, or condition, of accepting bills of exchange drawn against merchandise, that the bill of lading for it should be in hand at the time of the acceptance, and no respectable house would act otherwise, or allow their credit to be so far doubted as to permit a party to retain the bill of lading after they had given their acceptance for the value of the property covered by such bill of lading.

The counsel for the plaintiff urged that this was a suit on a plain bill of exchange, and that a bill of exchange could not be affected by having any other contract annexed to it. In this view of the matter, I consider him wholly mistaken. All the difficulty in the case arises from the fact, that it is a bill of exchange accompanied by another contract, which creates collateral and correlative rights and obligations. He cited some authorities, to wit: the cases of Stephens, Nisi Prius, vol. 1, p. 768; Bell *v.* Crick, etc.; Campbell's Nisi Prius, vol. 4, p. 218; Stone *v.* Metcalf, to prove that a bill of exchange, after it was drawn, could not be clogged, affected, or have its force and virtue diminished, by having another agreement tacked to it. These cases were all decided under the special laws of England, with regard to the stamp duties on notes and agreements. The stamp duty on notes is less than the stamp on agreements of the same amounts; and if agreements were attached to notes, the want of the requisite stamp would make both instruments invalid. The English courts, therefore, have been astute to sustain the notes independent of the agreement, but the stamp duties have no relation to foreign bills or agreements, and the cases cited have no application or bearing upon the one before the court. It was also urged by the counsel of the plaintiff, that the bill of lading was frequently given at the place of the inception of the contract, in place of an endorser. This argument and position were, to a certain extent, true, and are founded on the rules established by our moneyed corporations, to wit:

That they will not discount any promissory note or bill of exchange, without two satisfactory names. As we have seen in the inception of the bill of exchange, if the aid of an accommodation endorser be not called in, there is but one name to the bill, and the contract may be said to be incomplete; but the moment the bill is accepted, the rule of these moneyed corporations is satisfied. It was in order to avoid the expense of an accommodation endorser, that the bill of lading was attached to the bill of exchange, until such times as the acceptance could be obtained, the contract be rendered complete, and the two required names be furnished.

I come now to examine whether there exists any custom or usage of trade which controls or regulates the rights of the parties.

On this subject, I adopt the language of Judge Story, in the case of the schooner Reeside, 2 Sumner, p. 569. "I am myself no friend to the almost indis-

criminate habit, of late years, of setting up particular usages or customs in almost all kinds of business and trade, to control, vary, or annul the general liabilities of parties, under the common law, as well as under the commercial law. It has always appeared to me, that there is no small danger in admitting such loose and inconclusive usages and customs, often unknown to particular parties, and always liable to great misunderstanding, and misinterpretations, and abuses, to outweigh the well known and well settled principles of law. And I rejoice to find, that of late years, the courts of law, both in England and America, have been disposed to narrow the limits of the operation of such usages and customs, and to discountenance any further extension of them. The true and appropriate office of a usage or custom, is to interpret the otherwise indeterminate intentions of parties, and to ascertain the nature and extent of their contracts, arising, not from express stipulations, but from mere implications and presumptions, or acts of a doubtful or equivocal character, etc., etc." And again, in Donnell, *et. al.*, *v.* Columbia Insurance Company—2 Sumner Rep., p. 377: "Usages among merchants should be very sparingly adopted, as rules of law, by courts of justice, as they are often founded on mere mistakes, and still more often in the want of enlarged and comprehensive views of the full bearing of principles."

Before discussing this part of the subject, it is necessary to understand what is meant by custom or usage of trade. A custom or usage of trade, is a rule in relation to their contracts, adopted by parties having opposite interests. It must be known, recognized and assented to by both parties. It is said that there are tricks in all trades; but these practices are not to be considered as customs or usages; for instance, it is known that mercantile houses of the first standing in England, add fifty per cent beyond actual expenditure, to all their charges, to wit: the drayage, cooperage, mending, warehouse rent, postage, etc., etc.; but this practice is neither recognized or assented to by the party against whom the charge is made; and I apprehend that the houses that follow this practice, would not venture to put down a certain sum for drayage, and then add fifty per cent for an extra charge thereon.

It is also known that in purchasing supplies for West India plantations, when the bill was brought in, there was a memorandum at the bottom of it, "six months credit," "or ten," "fifteen," and even as high as twenty-five per cent discount for cash. Of course the cash was always paid, and the bill charged as a purchase on six months' credit. The discounts formed a very pretty item in the profit account. I do not pretend to say that these and worse practices are not indulged in elsewhere, and they exist in all trades and professions where opportunity is afforded for them; but they are not known to, or recognized by those against whom they are made. Such are not the usages of trade. On the other hand, to illustrate a custom, it is well known that cotton is sold in New Orleans by the gross weight, without tare for bagging or rope. This usage is known to buyers and sellers, and is a good usage of trade. In Liverpool, four pounds per hundred are allowed for tare, and this is a good usage of trade for that place. There is a regular tare on most articles, which varies at different places.

In most parts of the United States, there are three days' grace for the payment of bills, etc. In one small district there are four days of grace; and at Hamburgh there are eight days of grace. These, and others like them, are all good usages of trade, because they are assented to by all dealers; and such usages are universal, and are never departed from, except by special agreement, or by cases of exception as well known as the rule. So far as custom or usage can be brought to bear upon the rights of parties in the present case, it must be the custom or usage of London, where the contract was to receive its execution.

It is obvious that if the legal deductions and inferences from the original acts of the parties be correct, it is incumbent on the plaintiffs to establish a custom or usage to control those inferences. They have endeavored to do so; but the evidence offered by them appears to me not only lame and inconclusive, so far as it goes to establish any such custom or usage; but, on the other hand, makes strongly in favor of the defendant, to wit: to establish that the bill of lading must be delivered up on the acceptance of the bill of exchange.

Some of the witnesses offered, were persons much connected with our largest moneyed corporations. One of them testified that when in London and Paris, in 1832, two of the largest banking houses in those cities requested that our moneyed corporations would give positive orders, that when bills of lading accompanied bills of exchange, those houses who were their agents, should retain the bills of lading until the payment of the bills of exchange. A similar request was subsequently made by another principal London banking house to the Citizens' Bank of this city. The reason assigned for this request was, that the bills of exchange so accompanied, were often drawn upon their friends, and in such cases they would be placed under embarrassment, if, without such orders, they refused to deliver up the bills of lading on acceptance of the bills of exchange.

The proper interpretation of this request appears to be, that in regard to the secondary class of houses, we feel at liberty to impose this condition upon them; but that with regard to the houses that come near our own standing, we dare not do it without positive orders from you, and we wish you to give such orders. The moneyed corporations of New Orleans were out of the reach of retaliation or control of the English merchants.

If there existed any legal right, or positive custom or usage to withhold the bill of lading, after acceptance, and until payment, a request of such orders would seem wholly unnecessary.

The counsel for the defendant put this matter in a strong point of view, when they inquired in what light a request to strike off an endorser or give up a security would be considered by a merchant. The universal answer was, that no merchant ever gives up a security to which he is legally entitled.

Those witnesses who testified most strongly for the plaintiffs on the point of custom or usage, went no farther than to say, that the matter lay wholly in the discretion of the bill-holder in England; but they all admitted, that it would be unusual to refuse to give up the bill of lading, if the houses accepting had a first-rate standing.

The position assumed by the plaintiffs is, that on the acceptance of the bill of exchange, it is in the absolute and entire discretion of the bill-holder or his agent in London, to give up the bill of lading or retain it until final payment.

This position was suicidal, for if the bill-holder or his agent has the absolute right to retain the bill of lading, to give it up in any instance, would be to discharge every previous name upon the bill. What merchant, whatever might be his standing, whether a friend or indifferent to the agent in London, could expect him to do an act which would involve such consequences? It is also to be observed, that in customs and usages of trade, there is no such thing as discretion; they are absolute, imperative, and universal in favor of and against all the parties to the contract, when no special agreement to the contrary is made. It is clear, that if there existed any such custom or usage of trade, to retain the bill of lading until the payment of the bill of exchange, if the bill of lading was given up in any case before payment, the drawer and every endorser would be discharged, because their rights have been impaired.

The most distinct and substantive evidence was adduced, that one of the first houses of Liverpool, and one of like standing in London, declared, that in neither of these places was there any custom or practice which authorized the holder of a bill of exchange to retain the accompanying bill of lading after acceptance; but on the contrary, declared that the holder was bound to give it up to the accepter; and one of the witnesses produced by the plaintiff, while declaring himself to be in favor of the plaintiff's claim, candidly stated that when the question was first broached, in presence of himself and ten or twelve of his mercantile friends, they unanimously differed in opinion from him.

Every witness, when asked if he would accept a bill of exchange, and leave the bill of lading outstanding, answered promptly in the negative, as if it would be a reflection on his standing and credit to do so. The conclusion from all the testimony, amounts to what was stated to be the rule of right and practice by one of the witnesses for the defendant, to wit: that the rule was to deliver up the bill of lading on acceptance of the bill of exchange; and the exception to that

rule was, to withhold the bill of lading, when the house on whom the bill of exchange was drawn was insolvent, or in failing circumstances; but that even in this last case, the bill-holder exercised the right at his own risk; for if his apprehensions should prove groundless, he must suffer all the damages occasioned by his idle fears.

The right to withhold the bill of lading in cases of insolvency, or notoriously failing circumstances, is analagous to that of stoppage in transitu by the vender or quasi vender. The rule is laid down in Cross, page 363; Edition in Law Library, vol. 34, page 232: "All persons standing in the relation of vender and vendee, or consigner and consignee, on a sale or a consignment of goods on credit, may exercise the right of stoppage in transitu, and there are cases in which the law recognizes the right, though the contract under which the goods have been consigned may not be literally a contract of sale." So strictly is this right confined to cases of supervening insolvency under the French commercial code, that if the vendee were insolvent at the time of the sale, and the vender did not know it, he is still bound to deliver the merchandise, and allow the credit; for, say the jurists, it was his own fault—he was bound to know the condition of the person with whom he dealt. The right to retain the bill of lading is precisely analagous to that of stoppage in transitu, and is subject to the same modifications. The right is exercised at the risk of damages to be sustained by the vender, or quasi vender, in case it should turn out that the vendee or quasi vendee is not insolvent.

There is some evidence to show that the East India Company have established for themselves the right of withholding the bill of lading until discount, or payment of the bill of exchange which accompanies it; but this right is not proved, even in regard to other East India merchants. There may be something peculiar in the East India trade, of which the correspondence is carried overland, while the merchandise cannot be carried forward for many months; or perhaps the power of the company has enabled it to establish for itself a right, or rather usage, and other powerful individuals are now seeking to imitate its example. Indeed, I look upon the whole of this matter as a controversy between the banker and capitalists on the one hand, and the trading merchants on the other.

The counsel, in a case similar to the present one, who acts the part of banker, as well as advocate, with some simplicity acknowledged that the banking class, who are the bill collectors in England, do not receive sufficient remuneration for the responsibility imposed upon them of deciding whether the accepter of a bill is solvent or insolvent, in good credit or failing circumstances, and that one-fourth or one-eighth per cent does not compensate for this responsibility. There is no doubt that such responsibility exists, for if the London agent or holder had surrendered the bill of lading when the accepting house was insolvent, or in failing circumstances, the London agent would be liable to censure, if not to positive loss; but this is a responsibility belonging to their position, and it is their own affair if the commission is not adequate. Every one seeks to escape from responsibility by which loss or blame may be incurred, but the question is, how far he may relieve himself from the inconvenience, by trenching upon the rights of others who have opposite interests. The vast extent of London, and the occupation of her merchant princes in politics and pleasure, may render it very irksome to make the necessary inquiries, but such reasons cannot establish a new rule of right. It is very easy to divine how the controversy will terminate; money is power, and the class of shipping merchants require the aid of capital to such a degree, that they must submit to any terms and conditions which moneyed men may see fit to impose. Indeed, some bankers who were witnesses in the case, candidly acknowledged, that since the question was agitated, they have taken a positive agreement from the bill-sellers, that they should be allowed to hold the bills of lading, not only until the acceptance, but until the payment of the bill of exchange; and doubtless the money power will succeed in establishing a usage in contravention of the rule of right; and I cannot but think that the house of De Tastet & Co. have shown great firmness in resisting the imposition imposed upon them.

There is no serious attempt to impeach the credit and standing of De Tastet & Co., which, on the contrary, was shown to be good. That De Tastet & Co.

were purchasers of cotton in a year of falling prices, was no ground for suspecting their credit. A loss of the whole amount purchased, to wit: $100,000, would not affect a London house of any standing. Mere suspicion is no ground to justify the withholding the bill of lading. There must be manifest embarrassment in the affairs of the accepter. The refusal of the witnesses in England to testify on this subject, can only be appreciated by those who have some experience of the extreme sensitiveness of English merchants and others on the subject of credit, standing and character. Among them, a merchant's credit must no more be discussed than the chastity of a woman. That license of discussion of public and private matters, which exists among us, would by them be resented as the highest degree of impertinence; and no one would willingly testify in any manner upon the credit of a merchant, unless he was coerced to it by a power which he could not resist, and which an American commissioner to take depositions in a foreign country could not exercise.

There remains only one point to be considered. The plaintiff's counsel has urged, that even admitting that the holders of a bill of exchange had no right to withhold a bill of lading after the offer to accept the bills of exchange, still, that the cotton came to a falling market, and the plaintiff ought not to be saddled with damages which arose from this cause. The opposite mode of proceeding is the rule usually adopted in mercantile transactions. If a correspondent clearly violated his orders, the whole loss is thrown upon him, without any inquiry whether the loss would have been greater or less if the instructions had been followed. If there be no notice of protest, the endorser is discharged, although it may be shown that the maker or accepter were wholly insolvent, and that the protest and notice would have been useless forms. If the ship deviate, the policy is void; and it is not permitted to show that the loss arose from another cause, or that the deviation did not increase the risk. In various other instances, it is established, that any infractions of the rights of a party in commercial transactions, entitled that party to reject and repudiate the whole transaction, without inquiry into the scale of damage caused by a violation of the right; and these stringent and universal rules are necessary to prevent endless litigation, to hold parties to a strict accountability, and because of the difficulty in establishing the precise quantum of damage caused by violations of orders and rights.

In close analogy to these rules, the court is of opinion that De Tastet & Co. had a right to throw the whole transaction upon the hands of the holders of the bills of exchange; and if Prime, Ward & King have paid the deficiency to the Barings, and Lanfear & Co. have paid this deficiency to Prime, Ward & King, they have respectfully done so in their own wrong, and have no right to call upon Blossman to make it good.

It is no answer to this reasoning, that if the transactions had afforded a profit, De Tastet & Co. would have been entitled to it. The Barings were wrong-doers, and wrong-doers cannot profit by their acts, although subject to all the loss occasioned thereby.

It is proved that all those bills which were presented for acceptance, when the bills of lading were delivered up, were duly accepted and paid; and it would be great injustice to throw any portion of this loss on Blossman, when, if the plaintiffs or their assigns, or agents, had acted in due accordance with the rights of parties in the case, he would not have sustained any loss whatever.

Blossman has clearly been a severe sufferer by the misconduct of the plaintiffs, their assigns or agents, in his credit and standing as a merchant, and in the payment of the counsel fees. By offering to accept the bill of exchange on the delivery of the bills of lading, De Tastet & Co. acknowledged the correctness of the transaction on the part of Blossman; and if it was intended to settle a great mercantile question, the suit should have been brought against De Tastet & Co., and tried in London, where their commercial usages can most easily be proved.

This subject has been discussed at large, because of its application to an extensive class of contracts, and because of the importance and difficulty it has assumed in the minds of the mercantile community. It was, moreover, proper, not merely to lay down the rule, but to explain the reason of it, with its modifications and exceptions.

Upon the whole matter, therefore, it is considered that there be judgment for the defendant, and that the plaintiffs, A. Lanfear & Co., pay the costs of suit.

Levi Pierce, Esq., for plaintiff, Benjamin and Micou for defendant.

In the Commercial Court—Judge Watts—Jacob Little & Co., *v.* Blossman.

Motion for a new trial. I must refer to the opinion delivered in the case of Lanfear & Co. *v.* Blossman, for my general views on the question raised in this suit.

If it were necessary to advert to the origin and particular circumstances of the transaction, which the plaintiff's counsel made evidence they would make a case stronger against the plaintiff than the one above referred to, it is also to be observed, that when the bills of exchange were presented for acceptance, they were at once honored, but the bills of lading being called for, the call was met by an answer that they had not arrived. De Tastet & Co. left their acceptances in the hands of the notary. Upon the arrival of the bills of lading, the Barings refused to deliver them up, and De Tastet & Co. struck off their names from the bills of exchange.

The Barings have furnished a *pro forma* account sales of the amount which the cotton would have produced if it had been sold upon the maturity of the bills of exchange. If the cotton had been sold at that time, the loss would have been small. The cotton was sold eighteen months afterwards, and the loss was very much greater; which is not a bad illustration of the effect of any rule which would leave it to the discretion of the bill-holder, or his agent, whether or not to surrender the bill of lading at the time of the acceptance of the bill of exchange.

The motion for a new trial is refused.

Jacob Barker for plaintiff, and Messrs. Benjamin & Micou for defendant.

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# COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE AND REVIEW.

THE CRISIS OF POLITICAL AFFAIRS—ASCENDANCY OF THE INDUSTRIAL AND COMMERCIAL INTERESTS OVER THE POLITICAL AND MILITARY—PEACEFUL INFLUENCE OF COMMERCE—STATE OF OUR FOREIGN COMMERCE AT THE CLOSE OF THE FISCAL YEAR, 1845—IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF THE UNITED STATES—THE CURRENCY—COINAGE OF UNITED STATES MINT AND BRANCHES—LEADING FEATURES OF THE BANKS OF THE UNITED STATES—REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE OF THE UNITED STATES—CUSTOMS—DIVIDENDS OF NEW YORK CITY BANKS—EXPORTS OF THE PORT OF NEW YORK FOR FOUR YEARS—SPECIE AND LOANS OF THE NEW YORK BANKS, DISTINGUISHING THE GOVERNMENT INSTITUTIONS—IMPORTANCE OF A UNITED STATES MINT IN THE COMMERCIAL EMPORIUM—RADICAL MEASURES THE CAUSE OF INSTABILITY OF LEGISLATION—MR. CLAY'S COMPROMISE BILL—STABILITY THE GREAT ULTIMATUM OF COMMERCIAL LEGISLATION—THE NEWS BROUGHT BY THE CAMBRIA, OF PEEL'S FREE TRADE MOVEMENT.

THE state of affairs which we described in our last as indicating the culmination of events that have long been converging to a crisis, remains nearly as before. There is very little doubt but that the position of the political world is such, that a general war would be precipitated, but for the manifest ascendancy of industrial and commercial interests over the political and military. Industry and commerce, from being despicable, almost dishonorable pursuits, and from being ruthlessly disregarded by political and military interests, have, in the lapse of centuries, increased in importance, until thirty years of peace, during which the race of warriors has disappeared, has placed them in the ascendancy; and old political dogmas, and the whims of monarchical rulers, are overborne and controlled by the interests of commerce and industry. Hereafter, war cannot take place in opposition to the wishes of commerce. It can only result from absurd attempts, by blinded monarchists, to interfere with, and check the free exercise of individual, as well as national enterprise. Whatever people overrun an unoccupied country, extract from it its wealth, and make the wilderness to "blossom like the rose," confer a benefit on mankind in general; and that government which seeks to prevent so beneficial a

movement, will soon draw upon it the common resentment of all others. This great and general principle is that which is now exerting itself to disperse the clouds that have so long lowered on the political horizon, threatening disaster to the pecuniary interests of the commercial world. In England, the moment of emancipation from corn law thraldom is at hand; and the mighty power, now about to break up the oppression of ages, is in opposition to any display of hostility. The conviction of this has settled, in some degree, the public mind; although that uncertainty which yet involves the results of pending negotiations, more particularly with our unstable neighbor, Mexico, serve to prevent the entering into enterprises. Upon the whole, the state of commerce is better than might reasonably have been expected, after long continuance of the many disturbing causes of apprehension that have prevailed. The state of the foreign commerce, up to the close of the fiscal year 1845, is indicated as follows:—

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF THE UNITED STATES.

*Imports.*

| Years. | Specie. | Free Goods. | DUTY-PAYING. Specific. | Ad valorem. | Total. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1841,..... | $4,988.633 | $61,031,098 | $27,315,804 | $34,610,642 | $127,746,177 |
| 1842,..... | 4,087,016 | 26,540,470 | 20,325,526 | 49,200,085 | 100,162,097 |
| 1843, ..... | 22,820,334 | 13,267,259 | 12,494,340 | 16,684,875 | 64,753,709 |
| 1844,..... | 5,830,420 | 18,396,452 | 31,352,863 | 52,315,291 | 108,435,035 |
| 1845,..... | 4,070,262 | 18,077,598 | 34,914,862 | 60,191,862 | 117,254,564 |

*Exports.*

| Years. | For'g specie. | Dom. specie. | For. Goods. | Dom. Goods. | Total. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1841,..... | $7,287,846 | $2,746,486 | $3,181,235 | $103,637,232 | $121,851,799 |
| 1842,..... | 3,642,785 | 1,170,732 | 8,078,803 | 91,799,242 | 104,691,534 |
| 1843,..... | 1,412,919 | 107,429 | 5,139,788 | 77,686,353 | 84,346,480 |
| 1844,..... | 5,270,809 | 183,405 | 6,214,058 | 99,531,773 | 111,200,046 |
| 1845,..... | 7,762,049 | 814,446 | 8,584,781 | 68,455,230 | 114,646,606 |

The import of free goods did not, it appears, increase during the year 1845. The increase in goods paying specific duties was about 11 per cent, and 15 per cent in those paying ad valorem duties; involving an excess in the export of specie which would, doubtless, from the expanded state of the currency, have been much larger, but for the apprehensions that sprung up, towards the close of the year, in relation to the reduction of the tariff, as well as war fears, and checked imports, at the same time that famine fears in England enhanced exports of produce; and, by so doing, supported the exchanges. In the above table, it will be observed that the exports of specie are almost altogether in foreign coin; as that is, from the want of a mint in New York, immediately available as money when it arrives out; whereas the American coin has to undergo the process of recoining before it becomes a legal tender, in either France or England. The establishment of a mint in New York would doubtless greatly check the export of coin, by changing it into a form which would be less available abroad as money. At present, the location of the mint in Philadelphia acts as a seigniorage upon coinage, and therefore prevents that desirable operation. The coinage of three mints during the last year, as compared with former years, has been as follows:—

COINAGE U. S. MINT AND BRANCHES.

| Years. | Philadelphia. | New Orleans. | Dahlonega. | Total. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1843,..... | $6,530,043 | $4,568,000 | $582,782 | $11,680,825 |
| 1844,..... | 2,843,457 | 4,208,500 | 488,600 | 7,540,557 |
| 1845,..... | 3,416,800 | 1,750,000 | 501,795 | 5,668,595 |
| Total,. | $12,790,300 | $10,526,500 | $1,573,177 | $24,889,977 |

The coinage of the last three years has been near $25,000,000. In the year 1843, about half the import was coined; while, in 1845, the coinage exceeded the import by $1,600,000. The export of foreign coin has, in the last ten years, exceeded the import

near $4,000,000, and the amount coined has been $21,300,000; consequently, the foreign coin in the country has diminished $25,000,000, without taking into consideration the amounts brought by immigrants, and the bullion coined. It is in years of large import, like that of 1843, that a mint is wanted at the place of import, to impart immediately a form to coin which will reduce its export value, at the same time that it gives to it additional value as a circulating medium. The business of the Union, as we have said, has been checked by the prevalence of political causes. The banking movement has, however, very considerably progressed. The following are leading features of returns at the treasury department, for four years:—

LEADING FEATURES OF THE BANKS OF THE UNITED STATES.

| | 1842. | 1843. | 1844. | 1845. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| No. bks. and br'ches, | 692 | 691 | 698 | 707 |
| Capital,..... | $226,171,797 | $228,861,948 | $210,872,056 | $206,045,969 |
| Loans,..... | 323,957,569 | 254,544,937 | 264,905,814 | 288,617,131 |
| Specie,..... | 28,440,423 | 33,515,806 | 49,898,269 | 44,241,242 |
| Circulation,..... | 83,734,011 | 58,563,608 | 75,167,646 | 89,608,711 |
| Deposits,..... | 62,408,870 | 56,168,623 | 84,550,785 | 88,020,646 |

This expansion, here apparent, has progressed very considerably during the last few months of the year 1845, as indicated in the aggregate results of the actual returns of 412 banks, at the commencement of 1846, as compared with the features of the same banks in the above return, for 1845. The general state of the foreign trade, as well as its effect upon the government finances, may be indicated in the quarterly reports of the Treasury Department; which, for six quarters, have been as follows:—

UNITED STATES REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE.

*Revenue.*

| | 1844. | | 1845. | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Quarter end'g September 30. | Quarter end. Dec'mber 31. | Quarter end. March 31. | Quarter end. June 30. | Quarter end. Sept'mb'r 30. | Quarter end. December 31. |
| Customs,..... | $10,873,718 | $4,100,360 | $6,375,575 | $6,201,390 | $8,861,932 | $4,137,200 |
| Lands,..... | 434,902 | 600,000 | 485,533 | 517,858 | 480,819 | 830,000 |
| Miscellaneous, | 27,839 | 45,000 | 20,000 | 43,934 | 17,717 | 31,500 |
| Total,.... | $11,336,459 | $4,745,360 | $6,881,108 | $6,762,182 | $9,360,469 | $4,998,700 |

*Expenditure.*

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Civil, &c.,.... | $1.411,052 | $1,280,009 | $1,708,408 | $1,237,604 | $1,792,178 | $1,984,000 |
| Army,..... | 3,277,996 | 1,806,829 | 2,647,368 | 1,801,009 | 4,211,931 | 1,654,394 |
| Navy,..... | 1,906,206 | 1,668,899 | 1,578,632 | 1,073,902 | 2,331,359 | 1,541,051 |
| Debt,..... | 638,589 | 901,858 | 6,191,797 | 860,550 | 121,054 | 524,365 |
| Total,.... | $7,233,844 | $5,657,595 | $12,126,205 | $4,973,065 | $8,456,522 | $5,703,810 |

The customs of last quarter were very nearly the same as in the corresponding quarter of the preceding year, but those for the quarter ending September 30, were nearly 20 per cent less; and those for the first two months of 1846, embraced in the third quarter of the fiscal year 1846, are about 14 per cent less than in the corresponding quarter of the last year. This is remarkable, inasmuch as that every element of a large business is in existence. The whole bank machinery is in a buoyant state; the exports of produce have been large; and the outstanding obligations are, as a whole, not excessive. The rate of money has indeed been high for the past six months, but that has been owing more to the stringent action of the banks than to any excessive demand for money; and it is of a nature to cure itself, through the maturity of paper, and the non-creation of new obligations. The banks of New York city have shown an evident improvement in their business in the matter of dividends. The following is a table showing the rate and amounts of the semi-annual dividends declared by them all:—

DIVIDENDS OF THE NEW YORK BANKS, FOR 1844 AND 1845.

| Banks. | Capital. | 1844. Semi-a. d. | 1844. Amount. | 1845. Div. | 1845. Amount. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| New York,* | $1,000,000 | 4 4 | $80,000 | 4 4 | $80,000 |
| Merchants',† | 1,490,000 | 3½ 3½ | 104,300 | 4 4 | 119,200 |
| Mechanics',* | 1,440,000 | 3½ 3½ | 100,800 | 3½ 4 | 108,000 |
| Union,* | 1,000,000 | 4 4 | 80,000 | 4 4 | 80,000 |
| Bank of America,‖ | 2,001,200 | 3 3 | 120,072 | 3 3 | 120,072 |
| City Bank,* | 720,000 | 3½ 3½ | 29,400 | 3½ 4 | 33,000 |
| Phœnix,‖ | 1,200,000 | 3 3 | 72,000 | 3 3 | 72,000 |
| North River,‖ | 655,000 | 3½ 3½ | 45,850 | 3½ 3½ | 45,850 |
| Tradesmen's,‖ | 400,000 | 5 5 | 40,000 | 5 5 | 40,000 |
| Fulton,* | 600,000 | 5 5 | 60,000 | 5 5 | 60,000 |
| Butchers' and Drovers',‡ | 500,000 | 3½ 4 | 37,500 | 3½ 4 | 37,500 |
| Mech. and Traders',* | 200,000 | 3½ 3½ | 14,000 | 3½ 3½ | 14,000 |
| National,§ | 750,000 | 3 3 | 45,000 | 3 3½ | 48,750 |
| Mech. Ex.,‖ | 570,000 | 3½ 3½ | 52,500 | 3½ 3½ | 52,500 |
| Leather Bank,† | 600,000 | 3½ 3½ | 42,000 | 3½ 3½ | 42,000 |
| Seventh Ward,‖ | 500,000 | 2½ 2½ | 25,000 | 3 3 | 30,000 |
| State,* | 2,000,000 | 2½ 2½ | 100,000 | 3 3 | 120,000 |
| Bank of Commerce,‖ | 3,274,760 | 3 3 | 196,485 | 3 3 | 196,486 |
| Mec. Association,† | 632,000 | 3½ 3½ | 44,240 | 3½ 3½ | 44,240 |
| Am. Ex. Bank,* | 1,155,400 | 2½ 3 | 63,527 | 3 3 | 69,224 |
| Total, | $20,368,360 | 6.50 | $1,353,674 | 7.50 | $1,412,822 |
| Dry Dock Bank, | 200,000 | | | | |
| Manhattan,† | 2,050,000 | | | | |
| Greenwich, | 200,000 | | | | |

The aggregate increase in the business is, it appears, about 1 per cent, and now exceeds the legal rate of interest in New York state. The Manhattan Bank, which has long had its capital impaired, has recovered itself, and in 1846 will be among the dividend-paying banks. Its assets have considerably improved, by reason of the decision in the Philadelphia Courts in favor of the Bank of Kentucky against the Schuylkill Bank, involving the payment, by the latter, of the large sums due to the Kentucky Bank for false issues of its stock, while its transfer-books were at the Schuylkill Bank. The Manhattan is a holder of the Kentucky stock. The Dry Dock has also improved, by reason of a decision of the Vice-Chancellor of New York, setting aside $250,000 of its liabilities, on the ungracious plea of usury.

The general business of the city of New York has also presented some improvements, more particularly in articles of agricultural produce; for which the foreign demand, towards the close of the year, increased in activity. The following is a table of the quantities of leading articles exported for four years:—

EXPORTS PORT OF NEW YORK.

| Articles. | 1842. | 1843. | 1844. | 1845. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Apples, ....bbls. | 8,364 | 15,016 | 13,463 | 14,479 |
| Ashes, pot, | 31,778 | 43,041 | 40,532 | 46,724 |
| pearl, | 3,879 | 2,584 | 9,706 | 9,567 |
| Beef, pickled, | 24,195 | 36,048 | 61,684 | 55,552 |
| dried, ....cwts. | 2,002 | 6,999 | 2,491 | 3,638 |
| Beeswax, | 4,451 | 7,154 | 7,387 | 4,595 |
| Brandy, ....half pipes | 258 | 169 | 97 | 208 |
| " ....qr. pipes | 313 | 123 | 146 | 145 |
| Butter, ....firkins | 26,939 | 48,034 | 28,761 | 28,884 |
| Candles, sperm, ....boxes | 11,384 | 11,856 | 10,383 | 17,559 |
| tallow, | 9,234 | 23,326 | 27,791 | 36,637 |

* Dividend paid May and November. ‡ Dividend paid February and August.
† " June and December. § " April and October.
‖ Dividend paid January and July.

EXPORTS OF THE PORT OF NEW YORK—Continued.

| | | 1842. | 1843. | 1844. | 1845. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Cassia, | mats and cases | 25,752 | 28,947 | 14,380 | 11,885 |
| Cheese, | casks | 5,217 | 8,964 | 11,241 | 5,935 |
| " | boxes | 20,588 | 92,112 | 77,173 | 113,698 |
| Clover-seed, | tierces | 4,312 | 1,561 | 3,519 | 6,477 |
| Cocoa, | bags | 5,532 | 13,071 | 7,304 | 5,637 |
| Coffee, | sacks | 230 | 32 | 101 | 102 |
| " | bbls. | 531 | 234 | 347 | |
| " | bags | 18,514 | 19,401 | 54,742 | 43,706 |
| Corn, | bushels | 155,795 | 51,201 | 242,886 | 304,292 |
| Corn-meal, | hhds. | 6,814 | 6,084 | 3,959 | 6,298 |
| " | bbls. | 25,806 | 28,715 | 32,691 | 26,352 |
| Cordage, | coils | 1,725 | 2,559 | 3,805 | 3,993 |
| Cotton, | bales | 169,214 | 164,354 | 325,460 | 262,445 |
| Domestic cotton goods, | bales and cases | 19,729 | 30,435 | 21,939 | 22,323 |
| Dye-woods—Logwood, | tons | 6,927 | 7,014 | 7,817 | 9,694 |
| " Fustic, | | 1,718 | 1,281 | 779 | 1,145 |
| " Nicaragua, | | 408 | 196 | 121 | 179 |
| Fish—Dry cod, | cwts. | 33,951 | 40,559 | 42,652 | 36,694 |
| Mackerel, | bbls. | 4,649 | 3,859 | 2,276 | 4,485 |
| Herring, | | 4,517 | 5,893 | 6,467 | 4,602 |
| Flaxseed, | tierces | 3,066 | 4,131 | 3,924 | 14,586 |
| Flour—Wheat, | bbls. | 325,866 | 277,881 | 347,259 | 469,520 |
| Rye, | | 10,617 | 8,798 | 6,669 | 9,257 |
| Gin, foreign, | pipes | 71 | 12 | 10 | 43 |
| Gunpowder, | kegs | 4,405 | 8,233 | 11,821 | 17,753 |
| Hams and bacon, | cwts. | 5,627 | 8,235 | 9,481 | 5,695 |
| Hides, | No. | 31,286 | 58,633 | 45,615 | 46,396 |
| Hops, | bales | 5,296 | 2,842 | 3,098 | 3,059 |
| Indigo, | cases | 137 | 41 | 37 | 17 |
| " | ceroons | 330 | 154 | 96 | 15 |
| Lard, | kegs | 155,085 | 188,687 | 198,094 | 84,819 |
| Lumber—Shooks, hhds. and pipe, | No. | 26,535 | 23,579 | 29,322 | 35,844 |
| " Boards and plank, | M. ft. | 4,831 | 4,748 | 5,689 | 9,188 |
| " Staves and heading, | M. | 4,155 | 3,239 | 4,649 | 7,365 |
| " Hoops, | | 856 | 1,000 | 1,797 | 1,338 |
| " Shingles, | | 1 169 | 1,761 | 2,423 | 2,200 |
| Nails, | casks | 6,344 | 9,248 | 7,857 | 8,797 |
| Naval stores—Rosin, | bbls. | 58,481 | 82,844 | 105,225 | 99,950 |
| " Spirits turpentine, | | 1,175 | 1,702 | 2,127 | 4,112 |
| " Tar, | | 27,465 | 35,373 | 25,049 | 31,983 |
| " Turpentine, | | 188,206 | 202,030 | 207,908 | 237,252 |
| Oils—Olive, | baskets and cases | 862 | 1,208 | 2,338 | 3,973 |
| Linseed, | galls. | 14,800 | 14,300 | 21,100 | 211 |
| Whale, | | 2,445,806 | 2,567,916 | 2,368,966 | 3,117,984 |
| Sperm, | | 275,227 | 372,563 | 389,332 | 900,244 |
| Pepper, | bags | 1,692 | 2,187 | 5,111 | 3,644 |
| Pimento, | | 11,864 | 5,247 | 3,305 | 9,933 |
| Pork, | bbls. | 78,947 | 48,962 | 90,772 | 76,481 |
| Rice, | tcs. | 19,307 | 28,100 | 23,628 | 23,922 |
| Rum, foreign, | punch. | 1,200 | 568 | 518 | 836 |
| American, | bbls. | 1,573 | 1,767 | 4,235 | 3,671 |
| Saltpetre, | bags | 6,100 | 1,338 | 28 | 2,751 |
| Silks, | packages | 972 | 659 | 1,023 | 1,666 |
| Soap, | bxs. | 24,810 | 33,960 | 44,114 | 31,720 |
| Sugars—White Havana, | | 841 | 266 | 525 | ..... |
| Brown " | | 2,356 | 2,857 | 5,039 | 2,720 |
| Muscovado, | hhds. | 1,115 | 343 | 1,227 | 9,153 |
| " refined, | cwts. | 18,613 | 9,066 | 19,121 | 46,310 |
| Teas—Souchong and other black, | lbs. | ..... | 64,652 | 133,256 | 209,482 |
| Hyson skin, | | ..... | 16,875 | 68,492 | 11,845 |
| Hyson and Young Hyson, | | ..... | 179,462 | 363,772 | 553,824 |
| Gunpowder and Imperial, | | ..... | 215,283 | 107,251 | 147,557 |

EXPORTS OF THE PORT OF NEW YORK—Continued.

| | 1842. | 1843. | 1844. | 1845. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Tobacco, leaf,.....hhds. | 7,801 | 6,771 | 5,525 | 3,527 |
| " .....bales, cases, &c. | 12,863 | 12,989 | 8,150 | 7,706 |
| Tobacco, manufactured,.....kegs | 11,702 | 11,799 | 15,487 | 20,354 |
| Whalebone,.....cwts. | 11,013 | 14,521 | 13,668 | 24,431 |
| Wheat,.....bushels | 100,323 | 44,885 | 58,282 | 304,654 |
| Whiskey,.....bbls. | 1,159 | 70 | 736 | 1,038 |
| Wool,.....bales | 1,000 | 64 | 106 | 3,120 |
| Lead,.....pigs | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... |
| Specie, gold,.....value in dollars | ..... | 385,889 | 1,375,526 | 1,047,670 |
| " silver,..... | ..... | 2,033,374 | 5,313,357 | 2,009,718 |
| Tallow, .....casks | ..... | 9,665 | 11,827 | 7,410 |

Flour, oil, &c., have increased in quantity. Cotton is less than during the previous year, because there has been less speculation, and money has been dearer; the cotton has therefore gone more directly to Liverpool on deposit. The laws of England are more liberal than our own, in relation to commercial affairs. There is no restriction upon the use of capital. It can always be employed at the market-value without other risks than those peculiar to the operations of trade. The result is, that business seeks that point in preference to others, which labor under disadvantages. In New York, cotton may not be held if the rate of money in the ordinary discount market is 7 per cent, because the cotton trade is the most stupendous; and a small fluctuation, from any cause, makes the hazard great—money is therefore worth more for employment in it than in others. The law of New York, however, forfeits capital loaned at a higher rate than 7 per cent. This is an extra hazard for it to encounter, and the cotton therefore goes to Liverpool to find capital, to a greater extent than it otherwise would. That this law is by no means a dead letter, the case we have above cited, in relation to the Dry Dock Bank, is a melancholy instance. A portion of the surplus capital of London came here for employ, and was lost, because the rate of profit proved to be higher than New York laws would permit, although not so high as Louisiana laws allow. In the above table, the export of specie is much less than last year. A large portion of the pressure upon the market, which has been felt during the last three months, may be ascribed to the action of the government banks in New York. These institutions hold some three to four millions of the public money; and, in view of the passage of the independent treasury bill, have felt the necessity of placing themselves in a position to pay up. The movement may be traced in the following compilation from the quarterly returns of the banks of the city:—

SPECIE AND LOANS OF THE NEW YORK BANKS, DISTINGUISHING THE GOVERNMENT INSTITUTIONS.

*Specie.*

| | November. *Dolls.* | February. *Dolls.* | May. *Dolls.* | August. *Dolls.* | November. *Dolls.* | February. *Dolls.* |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Bank of Commerce, | 1,183,206 | 603,210 | 671,911 | 737,244 | 874,294 | 618,635 |
| " America,.. | 1,162,734 | 446,404 | 861,082 | 1,019,426 | 871,574 | 866,089 |
| Merchants', ..... | 959,597 | 565,761 | 942,706 | 1,022,166 | 969,605 | 855,796 |
| Mechanics', ..... | 324,770 | 435,903 | 509,741 | 660,251 | 624,337 | 575,774 |
| Am. Exchange,.... | 187,785 | 310,974 | 375,754 | 347,903 | 439,484 | 472,115 |
| North River,..... | 117,711 | 114,136 | 186,858 | 155,298 | 157,514 | 203,860 |
| Bank of State,..... | 731,467 | 562,714 | 532,177 | 664,586 | 596,273 | 819,047 |
| Total,..... | 4,667,270 | 3,039,102 | 4,080,229 | 4,606,984 | 4,533,081 | 4,411,316 |
| Other city banks,.. | 3,415,007 | 2,848,344 | 3,172,043 | 3,365,234 | 3,540,949 | 3,188,014 |
| Total specie,..... | 8,082,277 | 5,887,446 | 7,252,272 | 7,972,218 | 8,074,030 | 7,599,330 |
| Gov. deposits,..... | 5,372,005 | 1,700,785 | 2,343,223 | 2,716,778 | 4,173,116 | 3,360,250 |

*Loans.*

| | November. | February. | May. | August. | November. | February. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | *Dolls.* | *Dolls.* | *Dolls.* | *Dolls.* | *Dolls.* | *Dolls.* |
| Bank of Commerce | 3,629,154 | 3,243,349 | 3,347,953 | 3,168,578 | 3,488,144 | 3,777,212 |
| " America,... | 4,236,473 | 3,022,094 | 3,218,063 | 3,634,449 | 3,442,279 | 3,593,466 |
| Merchants', ..... | 3,179,794 | 2,736,633 | 2,906,284 | 3,414,447 | 3,179,873 | 3,720,291 |
| Mechanics', ..... | 2,466,368 | 2,345,112 | 2,371,310 | 2,524,199 | 2,741,775 | 2,666,633 |
| Am. Exchange,... | 2,821,978 | 1,961,335 | 2,124,883 | 2,142,350 | 2,495,311 | 2,566,968 |
| North River,..... | 1,022,812 | 944,328 | 1,061,086 | 1,117,962 | 1,221,943 | 1,068,115 |
| Bank of State,..... | 2,990,275 | 2,847,009 | 3,186,504 | 2,213,569 | 3,228,723 | 4,124,994 |
| 7 banks,..... | 20,346,854 | 17,099,860 | 18,216,083 | 18,215,554 | 19,795,048 | 21,517,679 |
| All other do.,..... | 21,856,665 | 21,135,382 | 21,742,240 | 23,318,344 | 24,368,422 | 21,348,879 |
| Total,..... | 42,203,519 | 38,235,242 | 39,958,323 | 41,533,898 | 44,163,470 | 42,866,558 |

It is to be regretted that bank returns are not given at least monthly, as in that case the operations of trade as affected by the bank movement could be accurately traced; as for instance, when the August return was made, the United States Treasurer's statement also appeared, showing that the banks mentioned held but $2,716,778; on the first of September, the same statement showed them to hold $4,750,000. What effect that had upon their movement is concealed through the want of bank returns. Money then began to grow scarce, and we find that in November the seven banks held specie a little in excess of the deposits they owed the United States Treasury, and $1,000,000 more than all the other banks. They then apparently commenced rapidly drawing their balances in specie, and by February they had increased their proportion of specie to $1,151,000 more than the deposits they held, and to $1,223,302 more than the other banks. If now we observe the effect of this specie drain upon the loans for the same period, we observe that the aggregate loans decreased $1,296,912; that the loans of the deposit banks increased $1,722,631, and all the other banks decreased $3,019,543. The specie drawn from them apparently forced them to curtail the accommodations to their customers, and the loans thus thrown out were seemingly partly taken at higher rates by the government banks that drew the specie. Last year, in the same quarter, viz: from November to February, the same institutions that are now the government banks, reduced their loans largely, while the other banks remained firm. Three of the banks, viz: the North River, the State and the Mechanics', did not become depositors until March, and it may be curious to observe that each of them has gradually and largely increased the specie in its vaults. These figures show that to a very considerable extent, more so than is generally supposed, the government dues are now actually drawn in specie from the paying banks to the depositories. It is by no means to be imputed to the banks as a fault, that the institutions guard so carefully their own interests; on the other hand, it is to the credit of their officers and managers that they so skilfully and vigilantly look after the interests of their stockholders. The whole, however, illustrates the evils which grow out of a want of system in relation to financial and commercial affairs, involving the greatest uncertainty in relation to the actions of Congress; and that in matters that are of vast importance, and affect the welfare of the whole community. Much of this instability of legislation grows out of radical measures, and an absence of that spirit of compromise which is the genius of our institutions, and by which the wants and interests of all parties are, or should be, consulted and respected in every public measure. If this principle were always carried out, and adhered to, the public welfare would be subserved in a much greater degree than it is. The great compromise bill of Mr. Clay was of this nature, and as far as it was concerned, the country reposed ten years. Unfortunately, in 1842, a tariff, radically protective, was adopted, in contravention of the spirit of that compromise, and the lapse of only three years finds us again exposed to the evils of

a reaction; and it is to be hoped that in readjusting the tariff of the United States, a general level may be fixed upon which will unite all parties in insisting upon its permanancy, as stability is indeed the great ultimatum.

By the arrival of the steamer Cambria, news of the most important character reached this country. It was no less than the declaration on the part of the British minister of his adherence to free trade principles, and his intention to conduct the affairs of that government hereafter on those principles of political economy evolved in the writings of Adam Smith, more than seventy years ago. The basis on which the new revision of the tariff takes place, is—

First—The abandonment of all duties upon raw materials.

Second—The removal of all duties upon articles that enter into the food and clothing of the masses of the people, embracing provisions and breadstuffs.

Third—The reduction of all duties upon foreign manufactures, to a maximum duty of ten per cent ad valorem.

Fourth—The diminution of the discrimination duty on foreign produce which competes with colonial.

This last clause is perhaps a nearer approach to genuine free trade than the others, as thus foreign free labor Muscovado sugar is charged with a differential duty of 9s. 4d., and white clayed 11s. 6d.; from both these it is proposed to deduct 3s. 6d., making the new discrimination 5s. 10d. in one case, and 8s. in the other. In relation to provisions and breadstuffs, the change is important to the United States. In relation to breadstuffs, the new duty amounts in effect to a fixed duty of 4s. per quarter, when the price of wheat is over 5s. 3d., and the sliding scale retained for rates less than that until February, 1849, when the corn duties are to cease. Provisions, such as pork, beef, etc., that were prohibited, prior to 1842, are now made free, as is also Indian corn. These are events fraught with the greatest results to our farming interest, and accruing as they do at a moment when the prospect of a great reduction in the duties on the returns of American produce sold abroad is about to take place, point to a most extensive increase in the trade between the two countries. The state of the farming interest is such as to require a very speedy extension of the market for the sale of produce, which, as a general thing, has never been so low in price as during the last three years. England has now swung open her ponderous and long closed gate to the entry, and 27,000,000 lightly fed people look hitherward for increased supplies. The annual balance due from England to the United States, has been for the last five years nearly an average of $17,000,000, paid in specie and bills. The new movement is calculated greatly to enhance the balance, and it becomes an interesting matter of inquiry in what medium payments are to be received. If the United States sell largely, the proceeds must return in some shape, and there appears to be none more available than that of British products of industry.

We annex the rates at which articles of provisions were admitted under the old tariff, and the proposed rates:—

| | Previous duty. | Reduced to | | Previous duty. | Reduced to |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Bacon,..... | 14s. per cwt. | Free. | Candles, tallow, | 10s. per cwt. | 5s. per cwt. |
| Beef, salted,.... | 8s. per cwt. | Free. | Cheese,..... | 10s. 6d. " | 5s. " |
| Hay, ..... | 16s. per load. | Free. | Hams, ..... | 14s. " | 7s. " |
| Hides,..... | 2l. per lb. | Free. | Hops,..... | 90s. " | 45s. " |
| Pork, ... ..... | 8s. per cwt. | Free. | Indian corn,... | heavy duty. | 1s. per qr. |
| Buckwheat,.... | ..... | 1s. per qr. | Rice,..... | 6s. per cwt. | 1s. " |
| Butter,..... | 20s. per cwt. | 10s. per cwt. | Tallow,..... | 3s. 2d. " | 1s. per cwt. |

This is a great change in burdens imposed upon farm produce; and when we reflect that, prior to 1842, the articles here enumerated were prohibited, and that a great business has grown up at the high rates now removed, we gather some idea of the greatness of the future trade.

# COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

## STATISTICS OF THE AMERICAN WHALE FISHERY, IN 1846.

SUBJOINED is a table exhibiting the names and tonnage of the vessels which are now employed in the whale fishery, of the several ports of the Union. The magnitude of this interest, and the proportion which it bears to the total commerce of the country, render it of some value to those who are interested in this branch of commercial enterprise, as well as to all who desire to become acquainted with the character of this species of shipping which sails from the harbors of the United States. We are indebted to "The Whalemen's Shipping List, and Merchants' Transcript," published at New Bedford, for this table, which is doubtless accurate.

NAMES AND TONNAGE OF VESSELS EMPLOYED IN THE WHALE FISHERY OF THE U. STATES, IN 1846.

*New Bedford.*

| Names. | Tons. | Names. | Tons. | Names. | Tons. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Abigail, | 310 | Cortes, | 382 | Franklin, | 333 |
| Ab. H. Howland, | 414 | Courier, | 381 | Fabius, | 432 |
| Abr'm Barker, | 400 | Cherokee, bark, | 261 | Garland, | 234 |
| Adeline, | 329 | Clarice, bark, | 237 | Gen. Pike, | 313 |
| Addison, | 426 | Cora, bark, | 220 | Geo. Howland, | 374 |
| Alexander, | 421 | Condor, | 349 | George, | 273 |
| Alto, bark, | 197 | Cornelia, bark, | 216 | Gideon Howland, | 379 |
| Alex. Coffin, | 381 | Ch'n Packet, b., | 184 | George and Susan, | 356 |
| Alfred, schr., | 180 | Chili, | 291 | George and Martha, bk. | 275 |
| America, | 418 | Coral, | 370 | George Porter, | 285 |
| America, bark, | 237 | Columbus, bark, | 313 | Globe, | 479 |
| Amethyst, | 359 | Congress, | 339 | George Washington, | 230 |
| Ann Alexander, | 253 | Champion, | 336 | Golconda, | 331 |
| Archer, | 322 | Cowper, | 391 | Golconda, 2d, | 359 |
| Arnolda, | 350 | Draco, bark, | 257 | Good Return, | 376 |
| Balæna, | 301 | Dartmouth, | 336 | Gov. Troup, | 430 |
| Baltic, | 409 | Desdemona, | 295 | Gratitude, | 337 |
| Benj. Tucker, | 349 | Dimon, bark, | 220 | Harrison, | 371 |
| Brandt, | 310 | Draper, | 291 | Herald, | 274 |
| Barclay, | 281 | Dragon, bark, | 190 | Herald, 2d, | 303 |
| Brighton, | 354 | Drymo, bark, | 262 | Hector, | 380 |
| Braganza, | 470 | Dryade, bark, | 263 | Hy. Kneeland, | 304 |
| Bramin, bark, | 245 | Edward, | 339 | Hercules, | 335 |
| Brunswick, | 295 | Edward, 2d, | 274 | Hercules, 2d, | 290 |
| Bart Gosnold, | 356 | Emily Morgan, | 368 | Hibernia, | 327 |
| Callao, | 324 | Emma, bark, | 246 | Hope, | 316 |
| Cambria, | 362 | Elizabeth, | 339 | Hope, 2d, | 295 |
| California, | 398 | Endeavor, bark, | 252 | Hope, bark, | 186 |
| Canada, | 545 | Enterprise, | 291 | Houqua, | 339 |
| Caroline, | 364 | Euphrates, | 365 | Huntress, | 391 |
| Ceres, | 328 | Eagle, | 336 | Hydaspe, | 318 |
| Charles Drew, | 344 | Emerald, | 359 | India, | 366 |
| Canton, | 409 | Equator, bark, | 263 | Inez, | 356 |
| Canton, 2d, | 280 | Factor, | 343 | Iris, | 311 |
| Canton Packet, | 274 | Falcon, | 273 | Isaac Howland,, | 390 |
| C. W. Morgan, | 351 | Fenelon, | 328 | Israel, | 357 |
| Chandler Price, | 441 | Florida, 2d, | 524 | Isabella, | 411 |
| Charles, | 290 | Florida, | 330 | James Allen, | 355 |
| Chase, bark, | 153 | Formosa, | 450 | Java, | 278 |
| Charles Frederick, | 317 | Fortune, bark, | 291 | Janus, | 321 |
| China, | 370 | Frances, | 348 | James Maury, | 395 |
| Cicero, | 252 | Frances, bark, | 368 | Junius, bark, | 196 |
| Copia, | 315 | Fra. Henrietta, | 407 | Jasper, bark, | 223 |
| Corinthian, | 401 | Franklin, bark, | 218 | Jeannette, | 340 |

| Names. | Tons. |
|---|---|
| John Adams, | 268 |
| John, | 308 |
| John Howland, | 377 |
| John and Edward, | 318 |
| Julian, | 356 |
| Junior, | 378 |
| J. E. Donnell, bark, | 343 |
| Kutusoff, | 415 |
| Lancaster, | 383 |
| Lafayette, | 260 |
| Lagoda, | 341 |
| Lalla Rookh, | 323 |
| Leonidas, | 231 |
| Lewis, | 308 |
| Liverpool, | 306 |
| Logan, | 302 |
| London Packet, b., | 280 |
| L. C. Richmond, | 341 |
| Liverpool, 2d, | 428 |
| Marengo, | 426 |
| Morea, | 330 |
| Majestic, | 297 |
| Maria Theresa, | 330 |
| Mary Frazier, | 288 |
| Mars, bark, | 270 |
| Mary, | 287 |
| Mayflower, | 350 |
| Mercator, | 246 |
| Metacom, | 360 |
| Menkar, | 371 |
| Milton, | 388 |
| Minerva Smyth, | 335 |
| Marcella, bark, | 210 |
| Milwood, bark, | 254 |
| Magnolia, | 396 |
| Maria, bark, | 202 |
| Margaret Scott, | 307 |
| Mercury, | 340 |
| Massachusetts, | 364 |
| Midas, | 326 |
| Milo, | 398 |
| Minerva, | 408 |
| Russell, | 387 |
| Awashonks, | 342 |
| Acushnet, | 359 |
| Adeline Gibbs, | 354 |
| Albion, | 326 |
| Amazon, | 318 |
| Ansel Gibbs, | 319 |
| Arab, | 336 |
| Arab, bark, | 276 |
| Belle, bark, | 320 |
| Bruce, bark, | 148 |
| Clifford Wayne, | 305 |
| Columbus, | 382 |
| E. L. B. Jenney, | 380 |
| Eliza Adams, | 403 |
| Eagle, | 283 |
| Erie, | 451 |
| Favorite, bark, | 293 |
| Minerva, 2d, | 291 |
| Minerva, bark, | 195 |
| Messenger, | 291 |
| Mobile, | 263 |
| Montpelier, | 320 |
| Moctezuma, | 436 |
| Mount Vernon, | 352 |
| Mount Wollaston, | 325 |
| Marcia, | 315 |
| Niger, | 437 |
| Nassa, | 408 |
| Newton, | 283 |
| New Bedford, | 351 |
| Nile, | 322 |
| Nimrod, | 340 |
| Nye, | 211 |
| Navy, | 356 |
| Obed Mitchell, | 355 |
| Octavia, | 257 |
| Ocean, | 349 |
| Ohio, | 383 |
| Olive Branch, | 366 |
| Olympia, | 296 |
| Orozimbo, | 588 |
| Otranto, bark, | 150 |
| Peri, bark, | 191 |
| Phœnix, | 423 |
| Phocion, | 266 |
| Pioneer, bark, | 231 |
| Pacific, | 385 |
| Pacific, 2d, | 332 |
| Pantheon, bark, | 271 |
| Ploughboy, | 391 |
| Parachute, | 331 |
| Persia, bark, | 240 |
| Rebecca Sims, | 400 |
| Rhine, bark, | 174 |
| Roscoe, | 362 |
| Roscoe, bark, | 235 |
| Robert Edwards, | 356 |
| Rodman, | 371 |

*Dartmouth.*

*Falmouth.*

| | |
|---|---|
| Com. Morris, | 350 |
| Wm. Penn, | 364 |

*Fairhaven.*

| | |
|---|---|
| Friendship, | 366 |
| General Scott, | 333 |
| George, | 360 |
| Harvest, bark, | 314 |
| Heroine, | 337 |
| Herald, | 262 |
| Hesper, bark, | 262 |
| Isabella, bark, | 243 |
| Java, | 294 |
| James Monroe, | 424 |
| Jno. A. Robb, | 273 |
| Jos. Maxwell, | 302 |
| Kingston, | 312 |
| Lagrange, bark, | 280 |
| Leonidas, | 243 |
| Rodman, brig, | 83 |
| Roman, | 375 |
| Roman, 2d, | 350 |
| Rousseau, | 306 |
| Russell, bark, | 302 |
| Roscius, bark, | 300 |
| Sally Anne, | 312 |
| Sam Robertson, | 421 |
| Saratoga, | 542 |
| St. George, | 408 |
| Swift, | 321 |
| Seine, | 281 |
| Statira, | 346 |
| Sarah Louisa, b., | 144 |
| Smyrna, bark, | 219 |
| Stephania, | 315 |
| St. Peter, | 267 |
| Susan, | 261 |
| South Carolina, | 302 |
| Science, | 388 |
| Tobacco Plant, | 271 |
| Trident, | 449 |
| Triton, | 300 |
| Two Brothers, | 288 |
| Timoleon, | 346 |
| Tuscaloosa, bark, | 284 |
| Uncas, | 413 |
| Valparaiso, bark, | 402 |
| Virginia, | 346 |
| William and Eliza, | 321 |
| Waverley, | 327 |
| W. Hamilton, | 463 |
| William Rotch, | 290 |
| W. Thompson, | 495 |
| Wade, bark, | 261 |
| Winslow, bark, | 263 |
| Washington, | 344 |
| Wolgo, bark, | 285 |
| Young Phœnix, | 377 |
| Zephyr, | 361 |
| Zoroaster, brig, | 159 |

| | |
|---|---|
| Hobomok, | 414 |
| London Packet, | 335 |
| Lydia, | 353 |
| Marcus, | 286 |
| Maine, | 294 |
| Martha, | 298 |
| Martha, 2d, | 301 |
| Mary Ann, | 335 |
| Omega, | 305 |
| Oregon, | 339 |
| Pacific, bark, | 314 |
| Sarah Frances, | 301 |
| Sharon, | 354 |
| South Boston, | 339 |
| William Wirt, | 387 |
| William and Henry, | 261 |

*Mattapoisett.*

| Names. | Tons. | Names. | Tons. | Names. | Tons. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| America, brig, | 148 | Edward, brig, | 134 | Sarah, bark, | 171 |
| Annawan, brig, | 159 | Joseph Meigs, | 338 | Solon, brig, | 129 |
| Cachalot, bark, | 230 | Lagrange, bark, | 170 | Willis, bark, | 164 |
| Elizabeth, bark, | 219 | Mattapoisett, b., | 150 | | |

*Sippican.*

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Cossack, bark, | 256 | Juno, brig, | 123 | Quito, brig, | 140 |
| Hecla, bark, | 207 | Popmunnet, bark, | 184 | | |

*Wareham.*

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| George Washington, | 374 | Levant, bark, | 219 | Pleiades, bark, | 261 |
| Inga, brig, | 160 | Montezuma, bark, | 195 | | |

*Westport.*

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Barclay, bark, | 167 | Harbinger, | 262 | Th. Winslow, b., | 126 |
| Champion, bark, | 209 | Mexico, brig, | 130 | Theo. Chase, bark, | 168 |
| Catherwood, brig, | 199 | President, bark, | 167 | U. States, bark, | 217 |
| Dr. Franklin, bark, | 171 | Rajah, bark, | 250 | | |

*Nantucket.*

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Alpha, | 345 | Henry Astor, | 375 | Orion, | 354 |
| American, | 329 | Hero, | 313 | Peruvian, | 334 |
| Atlantic, | 321 | Howard, | 364 | Phœnix, | 323 |
| Aurora, | 346 | James Loper, | 348 | Peru, bark, | 259 |
| Barclay, | 301 | Japan, | 332 | Phebe, | 379 |
| Catawba, | 335 | John Adams, | 296 | Planter, | 340 |
| Charles Carroll, | 376 | Levi Starbuck, | 376 | Potomac, | 356 |
| Chris. Mitchell, | 387 | Lexington, | 399 | President, | 293 |
| Citizen, | 360 | Mariner, | 348 | Rambler, | 318 |
| Clarkson, | 380 | Mary Mitchell, | 354 | Richard Mitchell, | 386 |
| Columbia, | 329 | Mary, | 369 | Rose, | 349 |
| Constitution, | 318 | Maria, | 365 | Sarah Parker, | 387 |
| Cyrus, | 328 | Martha, | 273 | Scotland, | 384 |
| David Paddack, | 352 | Mount Vernon, | 383 | Spartan, | 333 |
| D. Webster, | 336 | Massachusetts, | 360 | Susan, | 348 |
| Edward Cary, | 353 | Montano, | 365 | Three Brothers, | 384 |
| Eliz. Starbuck, | 381 | Monticello, | 368 | Tyleston, brig, | 111 |
| Enterprise, | 413 | Nantucket, | 351 | United States, | 372 |
| Empire, | 403 | Napoleon, | 360 | Walter Scott, | 339 |
| Foster, | 317 | Narragansett, | 398 | Washington, | 308 |
| Franklin, | 246 | Navigator, | 333 | Young Hero, | 340 |
| Ganges, | 315 | Niphon, | 340 | Young Eagle, | 377 |
| Harvest, | 360 | Norman, | 338 | Zenas Coffin, | 338 |
| Henry, | 346 | Omega, | 363 | Zone, | 365 |
| Henry Clay, | 385 | Ontario, | 354 | | |

*Edgartown.*

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Alfred Tyler, bark, | 225 | Milton, bark, | 175 | Vineyard, | 381 |
| Almira, | 362 | Pavilion, brig, | 150 | Vesta, brig, | 156 |
| Champion, | 399 | Splendid, | 392 | York, | 434 |
| Mary, | 343 | | | | |

*Holmes' Hole.*

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Delphos, | 338 | Malta, brig, | 150 | Ocmulgee, | 458 |
| Pocahontas, | 341 | | | | |

*Provincetown.*

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Belle Isle, schr., | 104 | Jane Howe, brig, | 130 | Phœnix, brig, | 150 |
| Cadmus, brig, | 130 | John B. Dods, b., | 163 | Rienzi, brig, | 101 |
| Carter Braxton, | 132 | John Adams, schr., | 110 | Rienzi, schr., | 115 |
| Council, schr., | 100 | Louisa, schr., | 98 | Samuel Cook, brig, | 140 |
| Edwin, schr., | 100 | Medford, schr., | 105 | Spartan, bark, | 188 |
| Fairy, bark, | 186 | Outesie, schr., | 110 | Samuel and Thomas, b., | 191 |
| Franklin, brig, | 172 | Pacific, brig, | 130 | Stranger, schr., | 100 |
| Gem, brig, | 162 | Parker Cook, bark, | 135 | Tarquin, schr., | 100 |
| Grand Island, schr., | 100 | | | | |

*Plymouth.*

| Names. | Tons. | Names. | Tons. | Names. | Tons. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Exchange, schr., | 99 | Mary and Martha, | 317 | Yeoman, bark, | 175 |
| Maracaibo, brig, | 93 | Triton, | 315 | | |

*Boston.*

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Maine, bark, | 174 | Ontario, schr., | 100 | | |

*Fall River.*

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Ann Maria, bark, | 196 | Leonidas, brig, | 128 | Rowena, | 404 |
| Caravan, | 330 | Pantheon, bark, | 284 | Sol. Saltus, | 316 |
| Gold Hunter, | 281 | | | | |

*Freetown.*

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Elizabeth, bark, | 349 | Harriet, bark, | 285 | | |

*Portsmouth.*

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Ann Parry, | 348 | | | | |

*Providence.*

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Balance, | 322 | Envoy, | 392 | Lion, | 298 |
| Bowditch, | 399 | Hope, | 471 | Richmond, bark, | 343 |
| Cassander, | 299 | Lexington, bark, | 201 | South America, | 616 |

*Bristol.*

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Anna, | 222 | Emigrant, bark, | 180 | Leonidas, | 353 |
| Corinthian, | 503 | Gen. Jackson, | 329 | Troy, brig, | 156 |

*Warren.*

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Benj. Rush, | 385 | Hector, bark, | 225 | Philip Tabb, | 405 |
| Boy, | 252 | Hoogley, | 292 | Portsmouth, | 520 |
| Chariot, | 360 | Henry Tuke, | 365 | Powhattan, bark, | 237 |
| Covington, | 351 | Hopewell, | 413 | Rosalie, | 323 |
| Dromo, bark, | 267 | Jane, | 371 | Sarah, bark, | 286 |
| Exchange, bark, | 180 | Lafayette, | 341 | Triton, | 345 |
| Franklin, bark, | 240 | Luminary, | 432 | Warren, | 383 |
| Galen, | 365 | Magnet, | 355 | Wm. Baker, | 225 |
| Harvest, bark, | 300 | | | | |

*New London.*

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Alert, | 398 | Exile, schr., | 183 | Lowell, | 414 |
| Atlantic, | 699 | Fame, bark, | 258 | Louvre, | 374 |
| Armata, | 413 | Flora, bark, | 338 | Menter, | 460 |
| Black Warrior, bark, | 231 | Friends, | 403 | Mogul, | 395 |
| Benjamin Morgan, | 407 | Franklin, schr., | 119 | Montezuma, | 424 |
| Bengal, | 304 | Garland, schr., | 149 | Merrimack, | 414 |
| Brooklyn, | 360 | General Williams, | 446 | Morrison, | 565 |
| Charles Carroll, | 412 | General Scott, bark, | 350 | Nantasket, | 434 |
| Candace, | 310 | General Washington, | 609 | Neptune, | 285 |
| Clematis, | 311 | Georgia, | 344 | N. America, bark, | 388 |
| Charleston, | 373 | George & Mary, | 356 | New England, | 368 |
| Columbia, | 492 | Hibernia, | 551 | Palladium, | 342 |
| Clement, bark, | 279 | Hand, schr., | 86 | Pembroke, bark, | 199 |
| Commodore Perry, b., | 270 | Helvetia, | 332 | Peruvian, | 388 |
| Connecticut, bark, | 398 | Hy. Thompson, | 315 | Phœnix, | 404 |
| Columbus, brig, | 159 | Hannibal, | 441 | Robert Boune, | 505 |
| Charles Henry, | 265 | India, | 433 | Stonington, | 351 |
| Ceres, bark, | 176 | Indian Chief, | 401 | Superior, | 406 |
| Catharine, | 384 | Iris, bark, | 245 | Shaw Perkins, sloop, | 55 |
| Carolina, | 396 | Isaac Hicks, | 495 | Tenedos, bark, | 245 |
| Columbus, | 344 | Izaak Walton, | 438 | Venice, bark, | 353 |
| Corea, | 365 | Jason, | 335 | Vesper, | 321 |
| Dove, bark, | 145 | Jefferson, | 396 | White Oak, bark, | 292 |
| Dromo, | 306 | John and Elizabeth, | 296 | William C. Nye, | 389 |
| Electra, | 343 | Julius Cæsar, | 347 | M'Lellan, | ... |
| Emma, schr., | 162 | Leander, schr., | 129 | | |

*Lynn.*

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Com. Preble, | 323 | Ninus, | 260 | Wm. Badger, | 397 |

*Salem.*

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Elizabeth, | 398 | Henry, bark, | 262 | | |

*Newport.*

| Names. | Tons. | Names. | Tons. | Names. | Tons. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| America, bark, | 217 | Geo. Champlin, | 361 | Margaret, | 375 |
| Audley Clark, | 331 | Helen, brig, | 120 | Martha, | 271 |
| Catharine, schr., | 75 | Jno. Coggeshall, | 338 | Mechanic, | 335 |
| Damon, bark, | 195 | Le Baron, bark, | 170 | Wm. Lee, | 311 |

*Somerset.*

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Pilgrim, bark, | 137 | | | | |

*Mystic.*

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Atlantic, | 291 | Coriolanus, | 268 | Meteor, | 325 |
| Alibree, bark, | 378 | Eleanor, | 301 | Robin Hood, | 395 |
| Æronaut, | 265 | Globe, | 316 | Romulus, | 365 |
| Bingham, | 375 | Hellespont, | 316 | Shepherdess, | 274 |
| Blackstone, bark, | 258 | Highlander, | 238 | Trescott, | 341 |
| Congress, bark, | 280 | Leander, bark, | 213 | Vermont, bark, | 292 |

*Stonington.*

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| America, | 464 | Corvo, | 349 | Newark, | 323 |
| Autumn, bark, | 181 | Calumet, | 317 | Newburyport, | 341 |
| Bolton, bark, | 220 | Cynosure, bark, | 230 | Philetus, bark, | 278 |
| Byron, bark, | 170 | Eugene, | 297 | Prudent, bark, | 398 |
| Cabinet, | 305 | Fellowes, | 268 | Tiger, | 311 |
| Charles Phelps, | 262 | George, | 251 | Tybee, | 299 |
| Caledonia, | 446 | Herald, | 241 | United States, | 244 |
| Cavalier, bark, | 295 | Mercury, | 305 | Warsaw, | 322 |
| Cincinnati, | 457 | Mary and Susan, | 392 | | |

*Sag Harbor.*

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Alexander, | 398 | Henry, | 333 | Ontario, | 368 |
| Acasta, bark, | 286 | Henry Lee, | 409 | Ontario, 2d, | 489 |
| Alciope, | 377 | Hudson, | 368 | Ohio, | 297 |
| American, bark, | 284 | Huron, | 292 | Oscar, | 369 |
| Ann, | 299 | Helen, | 424 | Panama, | 465 |
| Ann Mary Ann, | 330 | Illinois, | 413 | Phœnix, | 314 |
| Arabella, | 367 | Italy, | 299 | Plymouth, | 425 |
| Barbara, bark, | 268 | Jefferson, | 435 | Portland, | 299 |
| Cadmus, bark, | 307 | John Jay, | 494 | Romulus, | 233 |
| Columbia, bark, | 285 | Josephine, | 307 | Salem, | 470 |
| Concordia, bark, | 265 | John Wells, | 306 | S. Richards, | 454 |
| Crescent, | 340 | Konohasett, | 426 | Superior, bark, | 275 |
| Citizen, | 464 | Laurens, bark, | 420 | St. Lawrence, | 523 |
| Daniel Webster, | 397 | Levant, | 382 | Sabina, | 416 |
| Elizabeth Frith, bark, | 355 | Marcus, bark, | 283 | Thames, | 414 |
| Fanny, | 391 | Manhattan, | 440 | Thos. Dickason, | 454 |
| France, | 411 | Martha, | 369 | Timor, | 289 |
| Franklin, | 391 | Niantic, | 452 | Tuscany, | 299 |
| Gem, bark, | 326 | Neptune, | 388 | Washington, | 340 |
| Hamilton, | 322 | Nimrod, bark, | 280 | Wiscasset, | 380 |
| Hannibal, | 311 | Noble, bark, | 273 | Wm. Tell, | 370 |

*Greenport.*

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Bayard, | 339 | Neva, | 362 | Triad, | 336 |
| Caroline, | 252 | Nile, | 403 | Washington, | 236 |
| Delta, | 314 | Philip 1st, | 293 | Sarah and Esther, | 157 |
| Lucy Ann, | 309 | Roanoke, bark, | 252 | | |

*New Suffolk.*

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Gentleman, bark, | 227 | Noble, bark, | 274 | | |

*New York.*

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Sarah, | 495 | | | | |

*Cold Spring.*

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Alice, bark, | 281 | N. P. Talmadge, | 370 | Splendid, | 473 |
| Huntsville, | 523 | Richmond, | 437 | Tuscarora, | 379 |
| Monmouth, bark, | 273 | Sheffield, | 579 | | |

*Bridgeport.*

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Hamilton, | 359 | Harvest, bark, | 263 | Stiegli, | 350 |

## STATISTICAL VIEW OF THE AGRICULTURAL, MANUFACTURING AND COMMERCIAL INDUSTRY OF MASSACHUSETTS IN 1845.

We are indebted to the polite attention of JOHN G. PALFREY, Esq., Secretary of the Commonwealth of Massachusetts, for a copy of a valuable document just printed by order of the Legislature of that state, entitled, "*Statistics of the Condition and Products of Certain Branches of Industry of Massachusetts, for the year ending April* 1, 1845, *prepared from the returns of the Assessors, by* JOHN G. PALFREY, *Secretary of the Commonwealth.*" It is a handsomely printed volume of nearly 400 octavo pages. The first 328 pages are occupied with a statement of the condition and products of various branches of industry in each town in the state separately; the towns are followed by similar (tabular) abstracts for each county; and the volume closes with a summary view of the whole, showing the value of the articles manufactured or produced in Massachusetts, the amount of capital invested, and the number of hands employed; together with a statement of the commerce of the state from July 1st, 1844, to July 1st, 1845. Mr. Palfrey in the introductory advertisement to the document, thus explains the provisions for collecting the information, and the plan adopted in its arrangement, &c.

"The territory of Massachusetts, consisting of about 7,500 square miles, is divided into 309 towns. The general court of the year 1845 passed an act (chapter 171) 'to obtain statistical information in relation to certain branches of industry.' The act provided that the assessors of each town should, between the first day of May and the first day of October, 1845, make a return into the office of the Secretary of the commonwealth, of facts falling under certain specified descriptions, as they should be found to have existed in each town on the first day of April of the same year. The Secretary was directed to prepare blank tables, conveniently arranged for the return of those facts, with blank columns for returns of similar particulars not enumerated, and to furnish three copies, with a copy of the law, to the assessors of each town, on or before the first day of May. The assessors were allowed a stipulated sum for each day's service in making and reporting their investigations, to be paid from the treasury of the commonwealth, and were subjected to a fine for neglect. The Secretary was instructed to prepare and print an abstract from the returns for the use of the legislature. The result of this action appears in the following pages.

"It is probable that the statements are far from presenting a complete view of the industry of the commonwealth, in either of the departments to which they relate. All the towns made returns, and the assessors are sworn officers. But in some instances, (as in the towns of Ware and Stoughton, in which are one woollen and six cotton mills,) their applications for information were denied, and as, in all instances, the answers of interested parties were voluntary, the disposition to understate the value of property subject to taxation must be supposed to have operated to some extent. The applications of industry in Massachusetts are also extremely diversified; and though the act required returns of products not expressly referred to therein, it is to be presumed that not a few of these escaped observation. The returns of agricultural products, in particular, are believed to fall far below the truth.

"The general plan of the following compilation is the same as that adopted by Mr. Secretary Bigelow, for the same purpose, in 1837. The collection of facts, and the amount of products exhibited, is much larger, as was to be expected from the growth of the population, and the increased activity in the manufacturing and mechanical arts, as well as from the more thorough investigation required by the recent law, the more just appreciation of the object prevailing at the present time among our citizens, and the experience acquired by many of the assessors in conducting the former inquiries."

VALUE OF THE ARTICLES MANUFACTURED OR PRODUCED IN MASSACHUSETTS, THE AMOUNT OF CAPITAL INVESTED, AND THE NUMBER OF HANDS EMPLOYED, FOR THE YEAR ENDING APRIL 1, 1845.

| Articles. | Value. | Cap. Invested. | Hands emp'd. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Anchors, Chain Cables, &c..... | $538,966 | $377,685 | 422 |
| Axes, Hatchets and other edge tools,..... | 94,441 | 48,225 | 94 |
| Beef, &c., slaughtered,..... | 225,918 | ..... | ..... |
| Beeswax,..... | 981 | ..... | ..... |
| Berries,..... | 10,842 | ..... | ..... |
| Blacking,..... | 10,422 | ..... | 35 |

TABLE—Continued.

| Articles. | Value. | Cap. invested. | Hands emp. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Bleaching or Coloring, | $2,166,000 | $200,500 | 211 |
| Blocks and Pumps, | 127,249 | ..... | 204 |
| Boats, | 82,943 | ..... | 164 |
| Boots and Shoes, | 14,799,140 | ..... | 45,877 |
| Boxes of all kinds, | 215,105 | ..... | 235 |
| Brass articles, | 331,890 | 167,600 | 145 |
| Bricks, | 612,832 | ..... | 1,407 |
| Britannia Ware, | 102,550 | 49,350 | 93 |
| Broom Seed and Brush, | 86,111 | ..... | ..... |
| Brooms, | 200,814 | ..... | 313 |
| Brushes, | 153,900 | 68,875 | 220 |
| Butter, | 1,116,709 | ..... | ..... |
| Buttons, metal, | 56,080 | 51,500 | 60 |
| Butts or Hinges, | 25,390 | 3,500 | 49 |
| Calico, | 4,779,817 | 1,401,500 | 2,053 |
| Candles Sperm, and Oil, | 3,613,796 | 2,451,917 | 306 |
| Candles Tallow, and Soap, | 836,156 | 405,872 | 343 |
| Cannon, | 82,000 | 120,000 | 48 |
| Cards, | 323,845 | 171,500 | 147 |
| Carpeting, | 834,322 | 488,000 | 1,034 |
| Cars, Railroad Carriages and other Vehicles, | 1,343,576 | 553,434 | 1,881 |
| Chairs and Cabinet Ware, | 1,476,679 | 477,374 | 2,594 |
| Cheese, | 398,174 | ..... | ..... |
| Chemical Preparations, | 331,965 | 251,700 | 113 |
| Chocolate, | 81,672 | 47,500 | 27 |
| Clocks, | 54,975 | 10,350 | 40 |
| Coal, Mineral and Iron Ore, | 21,669 | ..... | 78 |
| Combs, | 198,965 | 73,100 | 340 |
| Cooperage, | 269,935 | ..... | 487 |
| Copper, | 610,950 | 329,000 | 197 |
| Cordage, | 906,321 | 543,930 | 647 |
| Cotton goods of all kinds, | 12,193,449 | 17,739,000 | 20,710 |
| Cutlery, | 148,175 | 68,725 | 197 |
| Dyeing, | 98,700 | ..... | 114 |
| Earthen and Stone Ware, | 52,025 | 15,500 | 72 |
| Engines, Fire, | 37,800 | ..... | 42 |
| Engines and Boilers, Steam, | 208,546 | 127,000 | 221 |
| Fire Arms, | 260,819 | 789,848 | 357 |
| Fishery, Mackerel and Cod, | 1,484,137 | 1,238,640 | 7,866 |
| Fishery, Whale, | 10,371,167 | 11,805,910 | 11,378 |
| Flax, | 665 | ..... | ..... |
| Flour and other Grain, | 174,805 | 44,550 | 30 |
| Fringe and Tassels, | 54,300 | 11,700 | 106 |
| Fruit, | 744,540 | ..... | ..... |
| Gins, Cotton, | 45,444 | 75,000 | 48 |
| Glass, | 758,300 | 700,200 | 630 |
| Glue, | 387,575 | 283,675 | 93 |
| Grain, | 2,228,229 | ..... | ..... |
| Hats and Caps, | 734,942 | 213,793 | 1,003 |
| Hay, | 5,214,357 | ..... | ..... |
| Hollow ware & castings, other than pig Iron, | 1,280,141 | 713,270 | 1,267 |
| Honey, | 13,206 | ..... | ..... |
| Hops, | 32,251 | ..... | ..... |
| Hosiery and Yarn, | 94,892 | 42,500 | 238 |
| Instruments, Mathematical, &c., | 54,050 | ..... | 68 |
| Iron, Pig, | 148,761 | 155,000 | 235 |
| Iron Railing, Fences and Safes, | 129,300 | 53,000 | 87 |
| Jewelry, includ. chronometers, watches, &c., | 305,623 | 126,225 | 293 |
| Lasts, | 80,145 | ..... | 84 |
| Latches and Door Handles, | 3,200 | 750 | 10 |
| Lead Pipe, and Lead Manufactures, | 90,880 | 72,700 | 50 |
| Lead, White, and Paints, | 356,200 | 253,500 | 106 |

TABLE—Continued.

| Articles. | Value. | Cap. invested. | Hands emp. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Leather, | $3,836,657 | $1,900,545 | 2,043 |
| Lime, | 43,629 | ..... | 80 |
| Linen Thread, | 145,000 | 79,000 | 192 |
| Linseed Oil, | 181,100 | 77,000 | 34 |
| Locks, | 60,070 | 23,600 | 75 |
| Lumber and Shingles, | 921,106 | ..... | 2,506 |
| Machinery, | 2,022,648 | 1,103,850 | 2,421 |
| Maple Sugar, | 52,966 | ..... | ..... |
| Marble, | 220,004 | ..... | 312 |
| Milk, | 304,917 | ..... | ..... |
| Millet, | 8,476 | ..... | ..... |
| Musical Instruments, | 548,625 | 293,100 | 427 |
| Oil, Lard, | 219,990 | 91,000 | 37 |
| Paper, | 1,750,273 | 1,144,537 | 1,369 |
| Pens, Steel, | 15,000 | 5,000 | 12 |
| Ploughs and other Agricultural Tools, | 121,691 | 58,575 | 158 |
| Potatoes, | 1,309,030 | ..... | ..... |
| Poultry and Eggs, | 26,563 | ..... | ..... |
| Powder, | 165,500 | 120,000 | 49 |
| Rolled and Slit Iron, and Nails, | 2,738,300 | 1,906,400 | 1,729 |
| Saddles, Harnesses and Trunks, | 422,794 | 144,540 | 648 |
| Salt, | 79,980 | 399,285 | 584 |
| Sashes, Blinds and Doors, | 180,181 | ..... | 215 |
| Scythes, | 113,935 | 69,590 | 171 |
| Seeds, | 4,721 | ..... | ..... |
| Shoe Pegs, | 18,206 | ..... | ..... |
| Shovels, Spades, Forks and Hoes, | 275,212 | 123,950 | 259 |
| Silk, Raw, | 6,477 | ..... | ..... |
| Silk, Sewing, | 150,477 | 38,000 | 156 |
| Snuff, Tobacco and Cigars, | 324,639 | ..... | 572 |
| Soap, (*See Candles,*) | ..... | ..... | ..... |
| Starch, | 119,950 | 37,500 | 39 |
| Stone, Building, | 1,065,599 | ..... | 1,849 |
| Straw bonnets & hats, Palm-leaf hats, &c., | 1,649,496 | ..... | 13,311 |
| Sugar, Refined, | 940,000 | 410,000 | 106 |
| Tacks and Brads, | 253,687 | 123,225 | 269 |
| Teazles, | 4,781 | ..... | ..... |
| Tin Ware, | 793,624 | 343,710 | 719 |
| Tobacco raised, | 16,686 | ..... | ..... |
| Tools, mechanics', | 161,899 | ..... | 256 |
| Upholstery, | 354,261 | 124,700 | 275 |
| Vegetables, other than Potatoes, | 515,082 | ..... | ..... |
| Vessels, | 1,172,147 | ..... | 1,017 |
| Whips, | 111,947 | ..... | 526 |
| Wood, (Fire,) Bark and Charcoal, | 1,088,656 | ..... | 2,925 |
| Wooden Ware, | 416,366 | ..... | 806 |
| Wool, | 365,136 | ..... | ..... |
| Woollen Goods of all kinds, | 8,877,478 | 5,604,002 | 7,372 |
| Worsted Goods, | 654,566 | 514,000 | 846 |
| Stoves, Bread, Beer, Books and Stationery, Balances, Matches, Lamps, Pickles, Paper Hangings, Types, Umbrellas, &c., | 4,758,384 | 1,587,760 | 3,232 |
| Total, | $114,492,636 | $59,145,767 | 152,766 |

NUMBER AND VALUE OF CATTLE, STOCK, ETC., RETURNED UNDER THE ACT.

| | Number. | Value. |
|---|---|---|
| Asses and mules, | 47 | $2,785 |
| Cattle, | 276,549 | 5,327,199 |
| Horses, | 65,181 | 3,451,118 |
| Sheep, | 354,943 | 558,284 |
| Swine, | 104,740 | 917,435 |
| Total, | 801,460 | $10,256,821 |

The following is a condensed statement of the commerce of Massachusetts, from July 1st, 1844, to July 1st, 1845:—

VALUE OF EXPORTS.

| | |
|---|---|
| Value of domestic produce exported in American vessels,..... | $6,918,733 |
| " " " " Foreign " ..... | 837,663 |
| Total exports of dom. produce in American and Foreign vessels,... | $7,756,396 |
| Value of foreign produce exported in American vessels,..... | $1,871,110 |
| " " " " Foreign " ..... | 723,524 |
| Total value of foreign produce exported in Am. and For. vessels,. | $2,594,634 |
| Total value of domestic and foreign produce exported,..... | $10,351,030 |

VALUE OF IMPORTS.

| | |
|---|---|
| Value of imports in American vessels,..... | $18,150,295 |
| " " Foreign " ..... | 4,630,729 |
| Total value of imports in American and Foreign vessels,..... | $22,781,024 |

CONDENSED STATEMENT OF THE TONNAGE OF THE SEVERAL DISTRICTS IN MASSACHUSETTS; ALSO A STATEMENT OF THE NUMBER AND CLASS OF VESSELS BUILT, AND THE TONNAGE THEREOF IN EACH DISTRICT, IN TONS AND NINETY-FIFTHS.

| Districts. | Regist'd Ton'ge. | Enrol'd & L. ton. | Tot. Ton. | No. Ves. b'lt. | Total. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Newburyport,..... | 16,586.32 | 5,396.59 | 21,982.91 | 15 | 5,463.53 |
| Ipswich,..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | .. | ..... |
| Gloucester,..... | 2,330.34 | 14,748.82 | 17,129.21 | 16 | 1,000.59 |
| Salem,..... | 18,781.31 | 11,181.93 | 29,963.29 | .. | ..... |
| Marblehead,..... | 1,849.31 | 8,121.32 | 9,970.63 | .. | ..... |
| Boston,..... | 187,712.50 | 40,282.04 | 227,994.54 | 47 | 14,741.11 |
| Plymouth,..... | 5,568.18 | 8,055.74 | 13,623.92 | 10 | 895.37 |
| Fall River,..... | 3,004.21 | 5,162.54 | 8,166.75 | 2 | 128.52 |
| New Bedford,..... | 103,428.17 | 8,893.20 | 112,321.37 | 5 | 1,701.84 |
| Barnstable,..... | 6,308.36 | 36,694.28 | 43,002.64 | 17 | 1,315.59 |
| Edgartown,..... | 7,146.94 | 1,126.66 | 8,273.65 | 2 | 376.18 |
| Nantucket,..... | 28,690.03 | 2,962.12 | 31,652.15 | 1 | 329.57 |
| Beverly,..... | ..... | 913.53 | 913.53 | ..... | ..... |
| | 381,455.82 | 143,539.07 | 524,994.89 | 115 | 25,962.50 |

Of this number 42 were ships, 16 brigs, 54 schooners, 1 sloop, 2 steamboats.

ABSTRACT OF THE TONNAGE OF THE SEVERAL DISTRICTS IN MASSACHUSETTS, IN TONS AND NINETY-FIFTHS.

| | REGISTERED. | | ENROL'D & LICENS'D. | | LICENS'D UN. 20 TONS. | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Districts. | Permanent. | Tempor'y. | Permanent. | Temp'r'y. | Coast. tr. | Cod Fish. | Agg. ton'age. |
| Newburyport, | 16,586.32 | ..... | 5,396.59 | ..... | ..... | ..... | 21,982.91 |
| Ipswich,..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... |
| Gloucester,.. | 2,034.86 | 345.43 | 14,038.45 | 25.48 | ..... | 684.84 | 17,129.21 |
| Salem,..... | 16,885.13 | 1,896.18 | 11,181.93 | ..... | ..... | ..... | 29,963.29 |
| Marblehead,. | 1,558.41 | 290.85 | 8,092.12 | ..... | ..... | 29.20 | 9,970.63 |
| Boston,..... | 147,688.03 | 40,024.47 | 39,437.13 | ..... | 436.53 | 418.33 | 227,994.54 |
| Plymouth,..... | 5,494.18 | 74.00 | 7,967.16 | ..... | 30.80 | 57.73 | 13,623.92 |
| Fall River,... | 2,885.62 | 118.54 | 5,014.92 | ..... | 147.57 | ..... | 8,166.75 |
| New Bedford | 102,848.03 | 580.14 | 8,514.58 | ..... | 170.42 | 208.15 | 112,321.37 |
| Barnstable,.... | 5,356.47 | 951.84 | 36,475.49 | ..... | 187.00 | 31.74 | 43,002.64 |
| Edgartown,.. | 4,474.06 | 2,672.88 | 1,018.71 | ..... | 107.90 | ..... | 8,273.65 |
| Nantucket,... | 27,881.91 | 808.07 | 2,918.05 | ..... | 14.44 | 29.58 | 31,652.15 |
| | 333,693.22 | 47,762.60 | 140,055.38 | 25.48 | 1,084.81 | 1,459.72 | 524,081.36 |

ABSTRACT TONNAGE OF THE SEVERAL DISTRICTS IN TONS AND NINETY-FIFTHS—CONTINUED.

| Districts. | R. S. ton. | Proportion of the Enrol'd and Licens'd Tonnage employed in the Coast tr. | Cod Fishery. | Mack. Fish. | Wh. Fish. | St'm Nav. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Newburyport,..... | ..... | 2,025.36 | 3,161.89 | 209.29 | ..... | ..... |
| Ipswich,..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... |
| Gloucester,..... | ..... | 322.67 | 10,859.58 | 2,881.63 | ..... | ..... |
| Salem,..... | .... | 10,805.44 | 324.62 | 51.82 | ..... | ..... |
| Marblehead,..... | .... | 2,331.60 | 5,628.22 | 132.25 | ..... | ..... |
| Boston,..... | 570.33 | 31,660.50 | 1,452.74 | 6,323.75 | ..... | 3,172.17 |
| Plymouth,..... | ..... | 1,156.14 | 6,017.86 | 793.11 | ..... | ..... |
| Fall River,..... | ..... | 5,014.92 | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... |
| New Bedford,..... | ..... | 8,301.76 | 212.77 | ..... | ..... | ..... |
| Barnstable,..... | ..... | 18,403.04 | 10,891.42 | 7,181.03 | ..... | ..... |
| Edgartown,..... | ..... | 682.22 | 336.49 | ..... | ..... | ..... |
| Nantucket,..... | ..... | 2,660.72 | 5,031.00 | ..... | 20,692 | ..... |
| Beverly,..... | ..... | 116.40 | 658.00 | 139.13 | ..... | ..... |
| | 570.33 | 83,481.07 | 44,574.84 | 17,712.16 | 20,692 | 3,172.17 |

## COMMERCE OF HAVANA.

The Diario of the 1st publishes a review of the exportations of the island during the past year; they appear from the following table to be considerably below the exportations of 1844. The defalcation in the export of sugar is attributed to the hurricanes which have swept over the island and laid desolate many plantations; while many of the planters, it is stated, are giving up the cultivation of coffee, complaining that the price it realizes does not remunerate them, owing to the great competition in Rio.

EXPORTS FROM THE PORT OF HAVANA, FROM JAN. 1 TO THE 31ST OF DECEMBER, 1845.

| DESTINATION. | SUGAR. boxes. | COFFEE. arrobas. | MOLASSES. hhds. | HONEY. tierces. | WAX. arrobas. | RUM. pipes. | SEGARS. M. | TOBACCO. pounds. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Spain,..... | 91,717 | 59,965 | 45½ | 77 | 8,992 | 1,047½ | 9,098 | 730,176 |
| United States,..... | 26,661 | 7,019 | 17,302½ | 309½ | 107 | 140 | 37,486 | 327,859 |
| England,..... | 10,315 | 1,205 | ..... | ..... | 28 | 10 | 22,204 | 131,615 |
| Cowes,..... | 65,521 | 695 | 104 | 64 | 4 | 79 | 1,659 | 7,870 |
| Baltic,..... | 11,919 | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | 223 | ..... |
| Hamburg & Bremen, | 22,794 | 33,592 | 16 | 268½ | ..... | 312 | 13,863 | 199,506 |
| Holland,..... | 6,715 | ..... | ..... | 126½ | ..... | ..... | 2,104 | ..... |
| Belgium,..... | 2,459 | ..... | ..... | 10 | ..... | ..... | 1,015 | ..... |
| France,..... | 11,847 | 37,877 | ..... | ..... | ..... | 2 | 17,323 | 90,623 |
| Trieste and Venice,.. | 5,117 | 5,370 | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | 10,945 | ..... |
| Italy,..... | 2,246 | 5,617 | ..... | ..... | ..... | 1 | 1,100 | ..... |
| Other Ports,..... | 4,030 | 7,712 | 1,833 | ..... | 21,626 | 906½ | 3,335 | 134,240 |
| Total,..... | 261,341 | 159,052 | 19,301 | 855½ | 30,757 | 2,498 | 120,355 | 1,621,889 |

COMPARATIVE STATEMENT OF ARTICLES REGISTERED FOR EXPORTATION, AT THE PORT OF HAVANA, FOR TWELVE YEARS.

| YEARS. | SUGAR. boxes. | COFFEE. arrobas. | MOLASSES. hhds. | HONEY. tierces. | WAX. arrobas. | RUM. pipes. | SEGARS. M. | TOBACCO. pounds. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1834,.... | 292,207 | 915,601 | 39,283 | 1,444 | 22,271 | 2,479 | 116,442 | 540,357 |
| 1835,.... | 300,218 | 793,392 | 42,355 | 1,403 | 23,303 | 3,583 | 64,733 | 660,915 |
| 1836,.... | 313,978 | 839,956 | 44,778 | 1,340 | 20,489 | 3,009 | 94,564 | 1,293,803 |
| 1837,.... | 321,657 | 1,409,789 | 43,278 | 1,399 | 35,414 | 2,497 | 143,705 | 1,119,185 |
| 1838,.... | 344,493 | 864,490 | 56,451 | 1,173 | 20,251 | 3,976 | 171,413 | 1,528,125 |
| 1839,.... | 330,624 | 1,174,996 | 51,902 | 1,526 | 29,535 | 6,670 | 153,370 | 1,359,029 |
| 1840,.... | 447,578 | 1,272,822 | 47,006 | 2,113 | 24,447 | 8,472 | 137,067 | 1,025,262 |
| 1841,.... | 346,890 | 742,570 | 42,909 | 1,974 | 28,815 | 8,753 | 159,450 | 1,452,989 |
| 1842,.... | 427,947 | 1,081,468 | 37,459 | 2,643 | 29,351 | 6,785 | 130,728 | 1,018,990 |
| 1843,.... | 461,307 | 773,043 | 35,711 | 2,198 | 37,048 | 6,223 | 152,009 | 2,138,802 |
| 1844,.... | 534,582 | 579,248 | 33,812 | 1,963 | 31,759 | 4,966 | 149,583 | 1,286,242 |
| 1845,.... | 267,595 | 170,466 | 20,075 | 847 | 31,409 | 2,727 | 119,271 | 1,663,073 |

COMPARATIVE STATEMENT OF THE ARRIVALS AND CLEARANCES OF VESSELS, (OTHER THAN COASTWISE,) AT THE PORT OF HAVANA, FOR THE YEARS 1844 AND 1845.

| | ARRIVED. | | | | | | CLEARED. | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1844. | | | 1845. | | | 1844. | | | 1845. | | |
| MONTHS. | Sp. | For. | Total. | Sp. | For. | Total. | Sp. | For. | Total. | Sp. | For. | Total. |
| January,..... | 32 | 106 | 138 | 57 | 122 | 179 | 31 | 89 | 120 | 43 | 73 | 116 |
| February,..... | 52 | 125 | 177 | 34 | 74 | 108 | 31 | 89 | 120 | 58 | 90 | 148 |
| March,..... | 53 | 135 | 188 | 57 | 144 | 201 | 53 | 128 | 181 | 49 | 106 | 155 |
| April,..... | 48 | 135 | 183 | 75 | 86 | 161 | 54 | 163 | 217 | 78 | 131 | 209 |
| May,..... .... | 60 | 128 | 188 | 61 | 55 | 116 | 69 | 127 | 196 | 55 | 85 | 140 |
| June,..... | 26 | 94 | 120 | 61 | 57 | 118 | 37 | 116 | 153 | 73 | 58 | 131 |
| July,..... | 38 | 49 | 87 | 41 | 26 | 67 | 32 | 92 | 124 | 46 | 50 | 96 |
| August,..... | 38 | 55 | 93 | 41 | 41 | 82 | 35 | 91 | 96 | 34 | 41 | 75 |
| September,... | 19 | 53 | 72 | 22 | 42 | 64 | 24 | 47 | 71 | 18 | 38 | 56 |
| October,..... | 59 | 63 | 122 | 42 | 38 | 80 | 34 | 34 | 68 | 45 | 49 | 94 |
| November,... | 43 | 98 | 141 | 46 | 39 | 85 | 69 | 75 | 144 | 49 | 41 | 90 |
| December,.... | 54 | 115 | 169 | 39 | 76 | 115 | 36 | 112 | 148 | 45 | 41 | 86 |
| Total,..... | 522 | 1156 | 1678 | 576 | 800 | 1376 | 505 | 1133 | 1638 | 593 | 803 | 1396 |

## COMMERCE OF NEW YORK.

The following statement of clearances from the port of New York, during the year 1845, was carefully compiled from the books of the Custom House :—

AMERICAN VESSELS.

| | Ships. | Barks. | Brigs. | Schooners. | Steamers. | M'ly Tot. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| January,..... | 18 | 9 | 31 | 21 | ... | 79 |
| February,..... | 21 | 10 | 26 | 16 | ... | 73 |
| March,..... | 28 | 17 | 46 | 27 | .. | 118 |
| April,..... | 37 | 9 | 28 | 24 | ... | 98 |
| May,..... | 33 | 19 | 50 | 21 | ... | 123 |
| June,..... | 31 | 18 | 41 | 15 | ... | 105 |
| July,..... | 30 | 21 | 28 | 16 | ... | 96 |
| August,..... | 30 | 14 | 35 | 12 | 1 | 92 |
| September,..... | 30 | 8 | 26 | 10 | ... | 74 |
| October,..... | 39 | 18 | 40 | 23 | ... | 120 |
| November,..... | 32 | 19 | 29 | 19 | ... | 99 |
| December,..... | 37 | 16 | 29 | 24 | 1 | 107 |
| Total for the year, | 366 | 178 | 409 | 228 | 2 | 1186 |

FOREIGN VESSELS.

| | Ships. | Barks. | Brigs. | Sch'rs. | Steamers. | Galleys. | Total. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| January,..... | 2 | 4 | 9 | 4 | ... | ... | 19 |
| February,..... | 3 | 8 | 5 | 1 | ... | ... | 17 |
| March,..... | 3 | 6 | 12 | 4 | 1 | ... | 26 |
| April,..... | ... | 10 | 18 | 7 | 1 | ... | 36 |
| May,..... | 7 | 10 | 31 | 8 | ... | ... | 56 |
| June, ..... | 12 | 9 | 30 | 5 | 1 | ... | 57 |
| July,..... | 6 | 14 | 36 | 17 | 1 | 2 | 76 |
| August,..... | 5 | 14 | 38 | 9 | 3 | 2 | 71 |
| September,..... | 6 | 10 | 30 | 9 | 1 | ... | 56 |
| October,..... | 5 | 12 | 29 | 8 | 1 | ... | 55 |
| November,..... | 2 | 3 | 10 | 5 | ... | ... | 20 |
| December,..... | 1 | 3 | 13 | 5 | ... | ... | 22 |
| Total Foreign, | 52 | 103 | 261 | 82 | 9 | 4 | 512 |
| " American, | 366 | 178 | 409 | 228 | 3 | ... | 1186 |
| Total Clearances, | 418 | 281 | 670 | 310 | 12 | 4 | 1698 |

The following statement shows the number and class of vessels which arrived at the port of New York from foreign ports, during the year 1845 :—

ARRIVALS AT THE PORT OF NEW YORK FROM FOREIGN PORTS, DURING THE YEAR 1845.

| | Ships. | Barks. | Brigs. | Sch'rs. | Galleys. | Steamers. | Total. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| American, | 479 | 239 | 542 | 245 | .. | ... | 1505 |
| British, | 17 | 26 | 154 | 70 | .. | 8 | 275 |
| Bremen, | 15 | 29 | 13 | ... | 1 | ... | 58 |
| Swedish, | 4 | 17 | 30 | 3 | .. | ... | 54 |
| Hamburg, | 5 | 14 | 1 | ... | .. | ... | 20 |
| French, | 1 | 6 | 6 | ... | .. | ... | 13 |
| Belgium, | 1 | 4 | ... | ... | .. | ... | 5 |
| Norwegian, | 1 | 9 | 10 | ... | .. | ... | 20 |
| Sicilian, | 1 | 7 | 12 | ... | .. | ... | 20 |
| Danish, | 3 | 3 | 3 | 1 | .. | ... | 10 |
| Dutch, | ... | 6 | 1 | 2 | 5 | ... | 14 |
| Russian, | 2 | 1 | 3 | ... | .. | ... | 6 |
| Prussian, | ... | 1 | 9 | .. | .. | ... | 10 |
| Austrian, | ... | 1 | 3 | .. | .. | ... | 4 |
| Sardinian, | ... | 1 | 3 | ... | .. | ... | 4 |
| Venezuelian, | ... | ... | ... | 1 | .. | ... | 1 |
| Mecklenburg, | ... | ... | 1 | .. | .. | ... | 1 |
| Portuguese, | ... | ... | 5 | 2 | .. | ... | 7 |
| Columbian, | ... | ... | 5 | ... | .. | .. | 5 |
| Genoese, | ... | ... | 2 | 2 | .. | ... | 4 |
| Mexican, | ... | ... | 1 | ... | .. | 3 | 4 |
| Brazilian, | 1 | ... | 1 | .. | .. | ... | 2 |
| Texian, | ... | ... | ... | 1 | .. | ... | 1 |
| | 530 | 364 | 805 | 327 | 6 | 11 | 2043 |

## SUGARS, MOLASSES, COFFEE, AND TEA, IMPORTED INTO U. STATES.

We have compiled, with care, from the voluminous document of the Secretary of the Treasury, the following tabular statement of the quantity of Sugars, Molasses, Coffee, and Tea, imported into the United States in each year, from the organization of the government, in 1790, to 1844, inclusive. The rates of duty given below, are derived from the same source.

Molasses.—Rates of duty in 1790, per gallon, 2½ cents; from 1791 to 1796, 3 cents; from 1797 to 1799, 4 cents; from 1800 to 1811, 5 cents; from 1812 to 1815, 10 cents; from 1816 to 1827, 5 cents; in 1828–29, 10 cents; from 1830 to 1832, 5 cents. The compromise act existed from 1832 to 1843. In 1842, the duty was 4½ mills per pound, equivalent to 5 cents per gallon. Genuine molasses weighs from 10 to 12, and usually but 11 pounds per gallon.

Coffee.—Rates of duty in 1790, per pound, 4 cents; in 1794, and to 1811, 5 cents; during the war of 1812, 1813, 1814, and 1815, 10 cents; from 1816 to 1829, 5 cents; in 1830, 2 cents; in 1831, 1 cent. From 1832 to the present time, it has been admitted free of duty.

Tea.—Rate of duty in 1790, per pound, on tea from China, was 10, 18, 20, and 32 cents; from Europe, 12, 21, 24, and 40 cents; from any other place, 15, 27, 30, and 50 cents. In 1812, from China, 20, 36, 40, and 64 cents; from Europe, 24, 42, 48, and 80 cents; from any other place, 30, 54, 60, and 100 cents. In 1816, from China, in ships or vessels of the United States, 12, 25, 28, and 50 cents; from any other place, 14, 34, 38, 56, and 68 cents. In 1830, from China, in United States ships, 40, 10, 12, 18, and 25 cents; from other places, in other vessels, 6, 18, 20, 27, and 37 cents. Since 1832, tea has been admitted free of duty.

IMPORTS OF SUGARS, MOLASSES, COFFEE, AND TEAS, INTO THE U. STATES, FROM 1790 TO 1844.

| Years. | Sugars. *Pounds.* | Molasses. *Gallons.* | Coffee. *Pounds.* | Tea. *Pounds.* |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1790,..... | 22,719,457 | 5,664,345 | 4,150,754 | 3,047,242 |
| 1791,..... | 21,919,066 | 6,354,148 | 2,588,940 | 985,997 |
| 1792,..... | 22,499,588 | 4,250,874 | 4,769,450 | 2,614,008 |
| 1793,..... | 37,291,988 | 4,236,222 | 11,237,717 | 2,009,509 |
| 1794,..... | 33,645,772 | 3,144,225 | 6,033,618 | 2,406,914 |
| 1795,..... | 37,582,507 | 3,853,905 | 14,674,726 | 2,374,118 |
| 1796,*..... | 25,403,581 | 3,896,241 | ..... | 2,310,259 |
| 1797,..... | 49,767,745 | 3,724,369 | 13,511,877 | 2,008,399 |
| 1798,..... | 33,206,395 | 4,079,145 | 4,178,321 | 1,890,965 |
| 1799,..... | 57,079,636 | 3,889,084 | 10,800,182 | 4,501,503 |
| 1800,..... | 50,537,637 | 3,717,359 | 7,408,196 | 3,797,634 |
| 1801,..... | 47,882,376 | 5,447,545 | 8,471 396 | 2,669,831 |
| 1802,..... | 39,443,814 | 6,317,969 | 6,724,220 | 2,406,938 |
| 1803,..... | 51,066,934 | 5,963,275 | 8,495,260 | 3,174,370 |
| 1804,..... | 55,070,013 | 6,535,513 | 6,101,191 | 2,432,074 |
| 1805,..... | 68,046,865 | 9,226,446 | 4,816,274 | 3,354,381 |
| 1806,..... | 73,318,649 | 8,533,590 | 17,345,188 | 4,750,881 |
| 1807,..... | 65,801,816 | 8,255,753 | 11,016,419 | 6,173,151 |
| 1808,..... | 84,853,633 | 6,456,073 | 30,895,495 | 4,800,142 |
| 1809,†..... | 12,381,320 | 5,336,686 | 6,649,293 | ..... |
| 1810,..... | 29,312,307 | 7,651,682 | 5,852,082 | 6,647,726 |
| 1811,..... | 55,332,214 | 8,500,019 | 17,648,398 | 2,557,329 |
| 1812,..... | 60,166,082 | 7,373,448 | 16,150,176 | 2,644,329 |
| 1813,..... | 31,364,276 | 3,220,710 | 8,202,072 | 524,888 |
| 1814,..... | 20,670,168 | 2,879,283 | 6,528,238 | 354,038 |
| 1815,..... | 54,732,763 | 6,110,957 | 14,238,319 | 2,172,940 |
| 1816,..... | 35,387,963 | 8,643,972 | 17,809,018 | 3,864,604 |
| 1817,..... | 65,591,302 | 10,877,670 | 21,900,104 | 4,586,153 |
| 1818,..... | 51,284,983 | 12,315,023 | 19,199,403 | 4,842,963 |
| 1819,..... | 71,665,401 | 11,910,729 | 20,825,869 | 5,480,884 |
| 1820,..... | 51,537,888 | 10,786,905 | 13,291,857 | 4,891,447 |
| 1821,‡..... | 59,512,835 | 9,086,982 | 21,273,659 | 4,975,646 |
| 1822,..... | 88,305,670 | 11,990,569 | 25,782,390 | 6,639,484 |
| 1823,..... | 60,789,210 | 13,019,328 | 37,337,732 | 8,210,010 |
| 1824,..... | 94,375,764 | 13,117,724 | 30,224,296 | 8,920,487 |
| 1825,..... | 71,771,479 | 12,535,062 | 45,190,630 | 10,209,548 |
| 1826,..... | 84,902,955 | 13,843,045 | 37,319,497 | 10,108,900 |
| 1827,..... | 76,701,629 | 13,376,502 | 50,051,986 | 5,875,638 |
| 1828,..... | 56,935,951 | 13,393,651 | 55,194,697 | 7,707,427 |
| 1829,..... | 63,307,294 | 10,150,224 | 51,133,538 | 6,636,790 |
| 1830,..... | 86,483,046 | 8,374,139 | 51,488,248 | 8,609,415 |
| 1831,..... | 109,014,654 | 17,085,878 | 81,757,386 | 5,182,867 |
| 1832,..... | 66,452,288 | 15,860,553 | 91,722,327 | 9,906,606 |
| 1833,..... | 97,688,132 | 15,693,050 | 99,955,020 | 14,639,822 |
| 1834,..... | 115,389,855 | 17,086,472 | 80,150,366 | 16,282,977 |
| 1835,..... | 126,036,239 | 18,971,603 | 103,199,777 | 14,415,572 |
| 1836,..... | 191,426,115 | 18,051,784 | 93,790,507 | 16,382,114 |
| 1837,..... | 136,139,819 | 16,451,182 | 88,140,403 | 16,982,384 |
| 1838,..... | 153,879,143 | 21,196,411 | 88,139,720 | 14,418,112 |
| 1839,..... | 195,231,273 | 23,094,677 | 106,696,992 | 9,349,817 |
| 1840,..... | 120,939,585 | 19,703,620 | 94,996,095 | 20,006,595 |
| 1841,..... | 184,264,881 | 19,355,028 | 114,984,783 | 11,560,301 |
| 1842,..... | 173,863,555 | 17,834,927 | 112,865,927 | 15,692,094 |
| 1843,..... | 71,335,131 | 129,536,523 | 92,914,557 | 13,869,366 |
| 1844,..... | 186,804,578 | 249,428,872 | 160,461,943 | 15,656,114 |

* Excess of exports over imports, 5,526,269 pounds.

† Excess of exports in 1809 over imports, 318,302 pounds of tea.

‡ From 1821, inclusive, the whole importations are given; previous to this time, the amounts only on which duties had accrued.

## COMMERCE OF OSWEGO.

Oswego, (New York state,) is a port of entry and semi-capital of the county of the same name. It was incorporated in 1828. The two parts of the village are connected by a bridge across the Oswego river, 700 feet long. The harbor, next to that of Sackett's harbor, is the best on the south side of Lake Ontario. It is formed by a pier, or mole, filled with stone, 1,259 feet long on the west side of the harbor, and 200 feet on the east side, with an entrance between them. The water within the pier has a depth of from 12 to 20 feet. The cost of this work was $93,000. On the end of the west pier there is a light, and lighthouse on the hill on the east side of the harbor near the port. More than 70 vessels, including steamboats, are owned at this port, besides a large number of canal boats. A considerable portion of the trade from New York city with the west, goes through Oswego and the Welland canal, which passes round Niagara Falls into Lake Erie. The salt from Salina, destined for the west, generally passes this way. The tonnage of the district of Oswego in 1843, according to the Treasurer's report, was 7,420 tons; and on the 30th of June, 1844, it was 9,387 tons. According to the census of 1840, Oswego village contains three commercial and four commission houses in foreign trade, with a capital of $246,000; 40 retail stores, with a capital of about $100,000; 2 cotton factories, 1 iron foundry, 8 flour mills, a tannery, morocco factory, &c. Daily lines of steamboats for the conveyance of passengers run from Oswego to Lewiston, Sackett's Harbor, Ogdensburgh, Kingston in Canada, &c.

We give below a statement of business done at this port during the year 1845, under the Drawback Law.

EXPORTS FROM OSWEGO TO CANADA.

| | Quantity. | Valuation. | | Quantity. | Valuation. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Sugar, brown,....hhds. | 1,456 | $131,952 00 | Bottles,.....gross. | 15 | 180 00 |
| Sugar, brown,....bbls. | 59 | 1,180 00 | Corks,.....bales. | 10 | 289 00 |
| Sugar, Havana,....bxs. | 25 | 1,000 00 | Tin Plates,.....bxs. | 891 | 6,419 00 |
| Sugar, Refined,.....72 | | 1,872 00 | Iron, pig,.....tons. | 112 | 4,250 00 |
| Molasses,.....hhds. | 109 | 3,815 00 | Hemp, Manilla,.bales. | 50 | 930 00 |
| Molasses,.....tcs. | 58 | 1,252 80 | Silks,..... cases. | 2 | 125 00 |
| Raisins,.....bxs. | 5,785 | 14,395 00 | Preserves,.....bxs. | 2 | 10 00 |
| Raisins,.....casks. | 370 | 2,590 00 | Hides,.....No. | 2,461 | 7,575 00 |
| Pimento,.....bags. | 62 | 682 00 | Sheet Glass,.....cs. | 8 | 380 00 |
| Cassia,.....cases. | 18 | 207 00 | Grapes,.....hf. casks. | 30 | 61 50 |
| Almonds,.....bags. | 93 | 1,692 60 | Buttons,.....bales. | 1 | 268 75 |
| Segars,.....M. | 241,250 | 60,312 50 | Blankets,.....2 | | 390 00 |
| Nuts,.....t.....bags. | 40 | 240 00 | Wine, Sherry,..pipes. | 2 | 331 50 |
| Furniture,.....pkgs. | 171 | 620 00 | Clash,.....bales. | 8 | 339 00 |
| Figs,.....drums. | 400 | 560 00 | Cutlery,.....case. | 1 | 382 50 |
| Oil, Olive,.....pipes. | 14 | 889 20 | Hardware,.....casks. | 22 | 2,780 91 |
| Oil, Linseed,.....15 | | 686 40 | Anvils,.....No. | 6 | 105 00 |
| Currants,.....casks. | 43 | 3,074 50 | Spades,.....bdls. | 4 | 36 00 |
| Cloth, Bolting,..cases. | 1 | 815 00 | Sacking,.....bales. | 3 | 229 70 |
| Wine, Claret,..... | 60 | 360 00 | Padding,.....1 | | 76 00 |
| Champagne,.....bskts. | 104 | 1,248 00 | | | |

| | |
|---|---|
| Value of merchandise, | $254,799 86 |
| Duties collected, | 56,236 11 |
| Retention, | 1,331 40 |
| Drawback paid, | 51,924 74 |
| On Sugar, Refined, value, | 1,872 00 |
| Amount of duty paid, | 532 19 |
| Retention, | 13 30 |
| Total value of merchandise, | 256,671 86 |
| Total amount of duty collected, | 53,788 30 |
| Amount retained, | 1,344 70 |
| Amount of drawback paid, | 52,443 60 |

# STATISTICS OF POPULATION.

## EMIGRATION FROM GREAT BRITAIN, IN 1843–44.

THE British Report of the Emigration Commissioners has just been published; and is, as usual, an interesting document. Its bearing upon the moral, social, and commercial destiny of the United States, renders the following summary, derived from the report, interesting to the readers of this Magazine. The following table exhibits the number of emigrants who have left the United Kingdom in 1843 and 1844, distinguishing the different places to which they proceeded:—

| Destination. | 1843. | 1844. |
|---|---|---|
| United States, | 28,335 | 43,660 |
| Texas, | 16 | 1 |
| Central and South America, | 433 | 710 |
| North American Colonies:—Canada, | 20,350 | 18,747 |
| " " New Brunswick, | 987 | 2,489 |
| " " Nova Scotia and C. Breton, | 1,203 | 747 |
| " " Newfoundland, | 448 | 684 |
| " " Prince Edward's Island, | 528 | 257 |
| " " Bermuda, | 2 | ..... |
| British West Indies:—Jamaica, | 202 | 126 |
| " " British Guiana, | 184 | 142 |
| " " Trinidad, | 153 | 60 |
| " " Other settlements, | 277 | 168 |
| Foreign West Indies, | ..... | 39 |
| East Indies, | 182 | 176 |
| Hong-Kong, | ..... | 18 |
| China, | 30 | 9 |
| Syria, | 6 | ..... |
| Mauritius, | 1 | 13 |
| Cape of Good Hope, | 203 | 161 |
| Western Africa and Madeira, | 194 | 250 |
| Australian Colonies:—Sydney, | 2,439 | 1,179 |
| " " Port Philip, | 627 | 934 |
| " " South Australia, | 45 | 47 |
| " " Van Diemen's Land, | 24 | 1 |
| " " New Zealand, | 343 | 68 |
| Total, | 57,212 | 70,686 |

Of the 70,686 emigrants who left the British Isles in 1844, the following were the proportions from each kingdom:—

| | |
|---|---|
| From England, | 50,257 |
| Scotland, | 4,504 |
| Ireland, | 15,925 |
| Total, | 70,686 |

| Went to— | English. | Scotch. | Irish. |
|---|---|---|---|
| United States, | 39,070 | 1,597 | 2,993 |
| Central and South America, | 668 | 43 | ..... |
| British North American Colonies, | 8,058 | 2,470 | 12,396 |
| British West Indies, | 283 | 197 | 16 |
| Foreign " | 38 | 1 | ..... |
| East Indies, | 131 | 45 | ..... |
| Hong-Kong, | 17 | 1 | ..... |
| China, | 9 | ..... | ..... |
| Mauritius, | 9 | 4 | ..... |
| Western Africa and Madeira, | 240 | 10 | ..... |
| The Cape, | 153 | 8 | ..... |
| Australian Colonies, | 1,581 | 128 | 520 |

About four-fifths of all the English emigrants went to the United States, and only one-sixth to the British North American colonies. Of the Scotch emigrants, only one-third went to the United States, and more than one-half to these colonies; while fully three-fourths of the Irish went to these colonies, and only one-fifth to the United States.

The proportion of cabin passengers from the three kingdoms affords a sort of index to the condition of the emigrants:—

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| England,..... | cabin passengers, | 4,070, or 1 in | 12½ |
| Scotland,..... | " | 663, or 1 in | 7 |
| Ireland,..... | " | 156, or 1 in | 102 |

It thus appears that Scotland sends out a much greater proportion of persons in respectable circumstances, as emigrants, than England, and an infinitely greater proportion than Ireland.

AVERAGE ANNUAL NUMBER OF EMIGRANTS.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| In the 4 years ending | 1828,..... | | 22,500 |
| " 6 " | 1834,..... | | 69,000 |
| " 5 " | 1839,..... | | 57,500 |
| " 3 " | 1842,..... | | 112,500 |
| 1843 and | 1844,..... | | 64,000 |

The three years of dearth and depression, ending with 1842, gave a tremendous impulse to emigration, almost doubling the annual amount for the preceding five years; while the two last years of cheap corn and improved trade have again reduced it in nearly the same proportion. The most extensive emigration ever known from Great Britain, or we suppose from any other country, was in 1842, when 128,344 persons left the British isles, to settle abroad.

The three great streams of emigration are to the North American colonies, the United States, and Australia, (including New Zealand.) Their variations, in the last nine years, are shown in the following table:—

| Year. | N. A. Col. | U. States. | Australia. | Year. | N. A. Col. | U. States. | Australia. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1836,.... | 34,226 | 37,774 | 3,124 | 1841,.... | 38,164 | 45,017 | 32,625 |
| 1837,.... | 29,884 | 36,770 | 5,054 | 1842,.... | 54,123 | 63,852 | 8,534 |
| 1838,.... | 4,557 | 14,332 | 14,021 | 1843,.... | 23,518 | 28,335 | 3,478 |
| 1839,.... | 12,658 | 33,536 | 15,786 | 1844,.... | 22,924 | 43,660 | 2,229 |
| 1840,.... | 32,293 | 40,642 | 15,850 | | | | |

## CENSUS OF MICHIGAN FOR 1845.

We publish below, from the Michigan state paper, the following complete census of Michigan, taken in 1845, compared with that of 1840, and the gain in each organized county.

| Counties. | 1840. | 1845. | Gain. | Counties. | 1840. | 1845. | Gain. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Allegan,..... | 1,783 | 3,158 | 1,375 | Lapeer,..... | 3,342 | 5,314 | 1,972 |
| Barry,..... | 1,078 | 2,602 | 1,524 | Lenawee,..... | 17,889 | 23,011 | 5,122 |
| Berrien,..... | 5,011 | 7,941 | 2,930 | Livingston,..... | 7,430 | 10,888 | 3,559 |
| Branch,..... | 5,715 | 9,070 | 3,355 | Mackinaw,..... | 923 | 1,666 | 743 |
| Calhoun,..... | 10,599 | 15,749 | 5,150 | Macomb,..... | 9,716 | 13,509 | 3,793 |
| Cass,..... | 5,710 | 8,078 | 2,368 | Monroe,..... | 9,922 | 13,356 | 3,434 |
| Chippewa,..... | 534 | 1,017 | 483 | Oakland,..... | 23,646 | 30,288 | 6,642 |
| Clinton,..... | 1,614 | 3,011 | 1,397 | Ottawa,..... | 704 | 1,438 | 734 |
| Eaton,..... | 2,379 | 4,616 | 2,237 | Saginaw,..... | 892 | 1,218 | 329 |
| Genesee,..... | 5,191 | 9,266 | 4,075 | Shiawassee,..... | 2,103 | 3,829 | 1,726 |
| Hillsdale,..... | 7,240 | 11,125 | 3,885 | St. Clair,..... | 4,606 | 7,680 | 3,074 |
| Ingham,..... | 2,498 | 5,367 | 2,769 | St. Joseph,..... | 7,068 | 10,007 | 3,029 |
| Ionia, ..... | 1,923 | 5,004 | 3,081 | Van Buren,..... | 1,940 | 3,743 | 1,833 |
| Jackson,..... | 13,130 | 16,852 | 3,722 | Washtenaw,..... | 23,571 | 26,979 | 3,408 |
| Kalamazoo,..... | 7,380 | 10,192 | 2,812 | Wayne,..... | 24,173 | 32,267 | 8,904 |
| Kent,..... | 2,587 | 6,153 | 3,566 | | | | |
| Total,..... | | | | | 212,367 | 304,285 | 92,018 |

## CENSUS OF ILLINOIS, IN 1840-'45.

The Illinois State Register furnishes us with a census of Illinois for 1845, compared with that for 1840. The returns for 1845 are all in, except four counties. When complete, they will probably show an increase of about 200,000 inhabitants since 1840; which will, says the State Register, be the greatest increase of any state in the Union.

| Counties. | 1845. | 1840. |
|---|---|---|
| Adams, | 13,511 | 16,023 |
| Alexander,* | 1,315 | 3,006 |
| Bond, | 6,218 | 5,211 |
| Boone, | 5,508 | 1,769 |
| Brown, | 5,372 | 4,174 |
| Bureau, | 5,294 | 3,159 |
| Calhoun,† | ..... | 1,650 |
| Carroll, | 2,622 | 1,178 |
| Cass, | 5,471 | 2,974 |
| Champaign,† | ..... | 1,582 |
| Christian, | 2,168 | 1,742 |
| Clark, | 10,496 | 7,654 |
| Clay, | 3,556 | 3,283 |
| Clinton, | 5,033 | 3,828 |
| Coles,* | 8,675 | 9,857 |
| Cook, | 21,581 | 11,055 |
| Crawford, | 6,337 | 4,632 |
| Cumberland, | 2,859 | ..... |
| De Kalb, | 4,013 | 1,744 |
| De Witt, | 3,332 | 3,382 |
| Du Page, | 7,104 | 3,615 |
| Edgar, | 9,235 | 8,337 |
| Edwards, | 3,413 | 3,073 |
| Effingham, | 2,561 | 1,736 |
| Fayette, | 7,849 | 6,223 |
| Franklin, | 4,979 | 3,737 |
| Fulton, | 17,161 | 13,592 |
| Gallatin, | 11,175 | 11,508 |
| Greene, | 11,510 | 10,993 |
| Grundy, | 1,314 | ..... |
| Hamilton, | 5,730 | 4,275 |
| Hancock, | 22,559 | 10,025 |
| Harden, | 1,802 | 1,398 |
| Henderson, | 3,418 | ..... |
| Henry, | 2,327 | 1,261 |
| Iroquois, | 2,730 | 1,749 |
| Jackson, | 5,038 | 3,595 |
| Jasper, | 2,360 | 1,415 |
| Jefferson, | 7,611 | 5,620 |
| Jersey, | 5,649 | 4,572 |
| Jo Davis, | 12,625 | 6,494 |
| Johnson, | 3,822 | 3,743 |
| Kane, | 12,718 | 6,725 |
| Kendall,† | ..... | ..... |
| Knox, | 9,680 | 7,175 |
| Lake, | 8,236 | 2,905 |
| La Salle,* | 10,149 | 10,013 |
| Lawrence,* | 5,669 | 7,061 |
| Lee, | 3,282 | 1,920 |
| Livingston, | 1,000 | 750 |
| Logan, | 3,907 | 2,363 |
| Macon,* | 2,929 | 3,233 |
| Macoupin, | 10,092 | 7,687 |
| McLean,* | 6,904 | 6,571 |
| McDonough, | 6,266 | 5,358 |
| McHenry, | 10,049 | 3,202 |
| Madison, | 18,013 | 13,260 |
| Marion, | 6,177 | 4,800 |
| Marshall, | 2,883 | 1,840 |
| Marquette, | ..... | ..... |
| Mason, | 3,135 | ..... |
| Massac, | 3,198 | ..... |
| Menard,* | 4,807 | 4,481 |
| Mercer, | 4,279 | 2,532 |
| Montgomery, | 5,603 | 4,436 |
| Monroe, | 6,083 | 4,466 |
| Moultrie, | 2,492 | ..... |
| Morgan,* | 16,541 | 15,444 |
| Ogle, | 6,113 | 3,447 |
| Peoria, | 10,549 | 7,053 |
| Perry, | 4,752 | 3,222 |
| Piatt, | 1,037 | ..... |
| Pike, | 15,974 | 11,842 |
| Pope, | 4,057 | 3,874 |
| Pulaski, | 1,705 | ..... |
| Putnam, | 3,129 | 2,103 |
| Randolph, | 8,866 | 8,156 |
| Richland, | 3,814 | ..... |
| Rock Island, | 5,058 | 2,560 |
| Sangamon,* | 18,697 | 15,222 |
| Scott, | 6,553 | 6,162 |
| Schuyler, | 8,581 | 7,132 |
| Shelby,* | 6,972 | 6,759 |
| Stark, | 2,483 | 1,632 |
| St. Clair, | 17,348 | 13,340 |
| Stephenson, | 6,344 | 2,869 |
| Tazewell,* | 7,615 | 8,566 |
| Union, | 5,982 | 5,296 |
| Vermillion, | 10,235 | 8,919 |
| Wabash, | 4,859 | 4,433 |
| Warren,* | 6,101 | 6,910 |
| Washington, | 5,895 | 4,809 |
| Wayne, | 6,497 | 5,148 |
| White, | 8,086 | 7,936 |
| Whiteside,† | ..... | 2,457 |
| Will, | 10,156 | 9,219 |
| Williamson, | 5,780 | 4,349 |
| Winnebago, | 7,831 | 4,545 |
| Woodford, | 3,288 | ..... |
| Total, | 643,482 | 472,929 |

* Portions of these counties have been cut off.

† In these four counties, the census for this year have not been received.—*State Register.*

# RAILROAD AND CANAL STATISTICS.

## FLOUR CARRIED OVER THE WESTERN RAILROAD.

The total receipts taken during the year 1845, at Greenbush, for freight, amounts to $268,450, being an increase of nearly 100 per cent since the first year, and the number of bbls. of Flour carried over the road has been as follows:

| | 1845. | 1844. | | 1845. | 1844. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| To Boston, | 181,796 | 154,080 | West Springfield, | 483 | 373 |
| Brighton, | 1 | ..... | Westfield, | 15,852 | 8,578 |
| Newton, | 422 | 707 | Russell, | 731 | 542 |
| Natick, | 445 | 689 | Chester Village, | 1,908 | 1,806 |
| Needham, | 668 | 964 | Chester Factory, | 974 | 1,055 |
| Farmingham, | 4,630 | 4,169 | Becket, | 1,470 | 1,182 |
| Hopkington, | 1,254 | 737 | Washington, | 282 | 205 |
| Southboro', | 1,100 | 1,870 | Hinsdale, | 1,703 | 1,729 |
| Grafton, | 1,223 | 1,797 | Dalton, | 4,111 | 3,085 |
| Milbury, | 2,719 | 2,005 | Pittsfield, | 4,450 | 10,078 |
| Worcester, | 33,685 | 43,298 | Shakerville, | 142 | 150 |
| Clappville, | 1,130 | 830 | Richmond, | 355 | 339 |
| Charlton, | 3,728 | 5,266 | State Line, | 3,742 | 8,176 |
| Spencer, | 1,027 | 826 | West Stockbridge, | 6,003 | |
| East Brookfield, | 1,310 | 1,406 | Canaan, | 1,171 | 797 |
| South Brookfield, | 880 | 780 | East Chatham, | 685 | 619 |
| West Brookfield, | 6,330 | 6,553 | Chatham, | 794 | 588 |
| Warren, | 2,015 | 2,207 | Kinderhook, | 350 | 215 |
| Palmer, | 10,414 | 8,890 | Schodack, | 1 | ... |
| Wilbraham, | 425 | 590 | Chatham Center, | 156 | .. |
| Springfield, | 20,345 | 18,071 | | | |
| Total, | | | | bbls. 329,850 | 300,822 |

## EARLY ENGLISH RAILWAYS.

Railway Data.—Railways made of wood were first used in Northumberland, about the year 1633; and were made of iron, at Whitehaven, in 1738. The first iron railroad was laid down at Coaldbrookdale, in 1786. Steam-power, to convey coals on a railway, was first employed by Blenkinsop, at Hunslet, near Leeds, and afterwards on the Stockton and Darlington railway.

## LOUISVILLE AND PORTLAND CANAL.

The annual report (the twenty-first) of the President and Directors of the Louisville (Kentucky) and Portland Canal Company for 1845, has been published, from which it appears that there was in the treasury, January 1, 1845, $113,490 78. That there was paid for 771 shares of stock held by individuals, which the company have been authorized to buy up by an act of the legislature of Kentucky, $129,528. The expenses on the canal in 1845 were $20,197 54 cents; office charges, salaries, etc., $1,892 32 cents, leaving a balance in the treasury on the 1st of January, 1846, of $100,164 86 cents; which, the report states, will be immediately applied in the purchase of about 665 shares of the capital stock held by individuals, which the company is authorized to purchase by an act of the General Assembly of Kentucky. This purchase, added to those purchased in the three previous years, will make the United States virtually the owners of 5,353 shares, leaving but 4,647 shares held by individuals to be hereafter liquidated.

The following is an abstract of the boats that have passed, and the tolls received on the canal, since its commencement in 1831, to 1845:

| Years. | Steamboats. | Flat and Keelboats. | Tons. | Am't received. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1831,..... | 406 | 421 | 76,323 | $12,750 77 |
| 1832,..... | 453 | 179 | 70,109 | 25,756 12 |
| 1833,..... | 875 | 710 | 169,885 | 60,736 92 |
| 1834,..... | 938 | 623 | 162,000 | 61,848 17 |
| 1835,..... | 1,256 | 355 | 200,413 | 80,165 84 |
| 1836,..... | 1,181 | 260 | 182,220 | 88,343 23 |
| 1837,..... | 1,501 | 165 | 242,374 | 145,424 69 |
| 1838,..... | 1,058 | 438 | 201,750 | 121,107 16 |
| 1839,..... | 1,656 | 578 | 300,406 | 180,364 01 |
| 1840,..... | 1,231 | 392 | 224,841 | 134,904 55 |
| 1841,..... | 1,031 | 309 | 189,907 | 113,944 59 |
| 1842,..... | 983 | 183 | 172,755 | 95,205 10 |
| 1843,..... | 1,206 | 88 | 232,264 | 107,274 65 |
| 1844,..... | 1,476 | 168 | 304,384 | 140,389 97 |
| 1845,..... | 1,585 | 394 | 318,741 | 138,291 17 |
| Total, | 16,817 | 5,263 | 3,048,692 | $1,506,306 34 |

The report states that if the ice had not obstructed the navigation so much earlier in the fall of 1845 than usual, the amount of tolls for that year would have exceeded the amount received in 1844.

# MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

## MERCANTILE LIBRARY ASSOCIATION OF NEW YORK.

The twenty-fifth annual meeting of this noble institute, was held in Clinton Hall, on Tuesday, January 13, 1846. The meeting was called to order by Mr. Charles E. Milnor, the president, on whose motion, that early and staunch friend of the association, Philip Hone, Esq., was called to the chair. The annual report, a copy of which is now before us, was read, and ordered to be printed. It is a business-like document, and records, without exaggeration, the success that has marked the career of the institute, in this the twenty-fifth year of its existence. The aggregate number of paying members, at the close of the last year, is stated in the twenty-fourth annual report to have been 1,891. The withdrawals in 1845 were 224, and the accounts closed in conformity with the requirements of the constitution, were 120. The number of additions during the year 1845, was 582; making the number of members at the present time 2,129. Of these, 2,012 pay $2 per annum, and merchants and others, to the number of 117, pay $5 per annum. The number of honorary members elected since the foundation of the institute, is 168; of these, there are deceased 48, leaving the number at present 120. There are also 292 stockholders of the Clinton Hall Association entitled to the privilege of the library. These tables, says the report, afford an abundant proof that the hopes expressed in the last annual report, that the result of that year's experience, gave "token of a more healthy and natural action of our system, and yielded rich promises of a more stable and enduring prosperity" than could have been expected after the gloom of the few years preceding. From the treasurer's report, it appears that the receipts of the present year have been $5,421 32; and the expenditures $4,818 16, leaving a balance on hand of $603 16. The library appears to have received the unwearied attention of the board of directors, and we are happy to state has been considerably augmented. The number of volumes in the library at the close of 1844, is stated in the last annual report to have been 21,312. The additions made in 1845 by purchase were 1,377, and by donation 51, in all 1,428; making the total number at the present time 22,740. The volumes added to the library during the past year, are classed in the report as follows:—Works of science and art, 232; general literature, 805; fiction, 381—total, 1,428. Of these, 7 were folios; 43 quartos; 724 octavos, and 554 duodecimos.

## THE TOWN OF BOSTON, (ENGLAND.)

TO THE EDITOR OF THE MERCHANT'S MAGAZINE.

MR. HUNT—There is in your number for January last an article on the "Value and Prospects of Life in the United States," by Dr. Spore. At page 27, the writer states, without any qualification, that "the mortality of the town of Boston, (England,) situated in the fens," is 1 in 27: it is also stated, that the counties of "Kent, Essex," and the "East Riding of Yorkshire," are reported in "Parliamentary returns as essentially fenny," and "subject to agues."

Now, first, as to the average mortality of Boston. That town was undoubtedly situated in the fens half a century ago; but it is now surrounded by one of the richest grazing and grain growing regions in England, and without a foot of fen land within a circle of forty miles diameter around it. The following table of the population and mortality of Boston has been drawn from authentic records.

| | Population. | Deaths. | Proportion. |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1565,..... | 2,375 | 97 | 1 in 24,48 |
| 1768,..... | 3,470 | 135 | 1 in 25,70 |
| 1801,..... | 5,926 | 165 | 1 in 35,90 |
| 1811,..... | 8,113 | 231 | 1 in 35,10 |
| 1821,..... | 10,287 | 191 | 1 in 38,86 |
| 1831,..... | 12,019 | 236 | 1 in 51,35 |
| 1841,..... | 13,354 | 259 | 1 in 51,59 |
| 1844,..... | 14,618 | 273 | 1 in 53,54 |

So much in justice to the healthiness of my native town. Great part of the surrounding fenny country was drained and cultivated before 1801, and the remainder shortly afterwards; and scarcely a case of what was used to be called "the fen ague," has occurred in the neighborhood for many years.

Again, as to "Kent, Essex and the East Riding of Yorkshire being reported in Parliamentary returns as essentially fenny and subject to agues." I will not say what they may have been a century ago; but they certainly never were the fenny country of England. The great Bedford Level, of which the learned Dugdale has left us a good history in his work on "Drainage and Embankment," comprehended the counties of Cambridge, Huntington and Bedford, and much of Norfolk and Lincolnshire, as well as the Isle of Ely. This extensive level was, a century ago, "essentially fenny" and "subject to agues." The whole, however, with the exception of a few shallow lakes called meres, has been drained and cultivated, and rendered highly productive as well as salubrious. Waving all question as to what "Kent and Essex and the East Riding of Yorkshire" may have been, the following statement of their average mortality in 1811 and in 1839, when compared with the average mortality of England, will help to remove the charge of present insalubrity.

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Mean mortality of | England,..... | 1 in 49 | | 1 in 44,28 |
| " | " | Kent,..... | 1 in 41 | 1 in 50,68 |
| " | " | Essex,..... | 1 in 44 | 1 in 51,50 |
| " | " | East Riding of Yorkshire,..... | 1 in 47 | 1 in 46,90 |
| " | " | Lincolnshire,..... | 1 in 51 | 1 in 57,00 |

These corrections do not affect Dr. Spore's argument, that elevated districts are more healthy than low, marshy, and fenny ones; but they are due to the districts which he has named, as furnishing the proof of it.

P. T.

## THE GUANO TRADE.

It appears from a statistical document on Guano, published by the Peruvian government, that in the year 1841, the first year of commerce in this manure, there were 6,125 tons exported from the coast of Peru in 23 ships. In the following years the exportation was considerably augmented. Thus, from the year 1842, to the month of February of the past year, 106 vessels left Peru with about 32,000 tons, of which 2,522 were exported to France in eight French vessels, 300 to the United States, and 300 to Italy and Austria. The rest, nearly nine-tenths, took the direction of England.

# THE BOOK TRADE.

1.—*A System of Logic. Ratiocinative and Inductive being a Connected View of the Principles of Evidence, and the Methods of Scientific Investigation.* By JOHN STUART MILL. New York: Harper & Brothers.

This treatise supplies a long existing deficiency in philosophical science. The heterogeneous elements of logical systems have been a great drawback to the true progress of that science, and their influence has thus been ill directed because not concentrated, since the days of Aristotle, the first artist of this "art of arts." The Scottish philosophers of the inductive school; Kant, Fries, and the others of the German school, all possess kindred elements, and capable of being combined; and we are here convinced that the latter is but an extension of the former By supplying the gulf between them, viz., the logicians of the *Pure Reason* and those who refer only to the understanding, between the supporters and opposers of the syllogism, casting out the errors of both systems, and assimilating the benefits of others, this work is really made to embody the results of all late progress in Logic, and in the modes of investigating truth and evidence. It is no *new* system, but what is far better, a compend and harmony of all previous systems of any worth. It is adapted to a capacity little advanced, having not half the obscurity of Whately, though more philosophical, and compared with former treatises, from its eclectic character, appears the most valuable that has yet been published. It discusses the most general and comprehensive questions, and is yet sufficiently elementary and detailed. We know of no other writer who has so fully gone into the physical sciences, and analysed their laws, and shewn how far analogy should be carried into the moral.

2.—*The Addresses and Messages of the Presidents of the United States, Inaugural, Annual, and Special, from 1789 to 1846; with a Memoir of each of the Presidents, and a History of their Administrations; also the Constitution of the United States, and a Selection of Important Documents and Statistical Information.* Compiled from Official Sources, by EDWIN WILLIAMS. In two volumes. New York: Edward Walker.

The first volume, a large and handsome octavo of 728 pages, embracing all the messages and addresses of the Presidents from Washington to Jackson, with biographical notices of each, and a succinct history of their administrations, has been published. A second volume is soon to follow, which will include in the same order the messages, etc., from Jackson to Polk, completing the work to 1846. The arrangement adopted by Mr. Williams, the compiler, is judicious—he first gives us the Declaration of Independence; the Articles of Confederation; Constitution of the United States, and the Amendments to the same; and then proceeds to a brief biography of Washington, following it with all the messages of the first President, and closing with a comprehensive history of his administration; pursuing the same course throughout the work. The official writings of the American Presidents are thus rendered more valuable and complete, as a continued national history, from the adoption of our constitution to the present time. The very general value and interest connected with this enterprise, cannot fail of securing for it the most complete success. To the statesman and politician it will become an indispensable *vade mecum*, and the American who loves his country, will examine with pleasure, as well as patriotic pride, the political history here unfolded. "He will," to quote from the introduction of Mr. Williams, "behold the republic founded and established by the valor and wisdom of his ancestors, in the different stages of her progress—from the dawn of her existence as an independent power, through the blessings of Providence, overcoming every difficulty and danger—advancing in population, wealth and territory, until she has acquired the first rank in physical and moral ability among the nations of the earth."

3.—*Memoir of the Life and Writings of Felicia Hemans.* By her SISTER. With an Essay on her Genius. By MRS. SIGOURNEY. New York: C. S. Francis & Co's Cabinet Library. Boston: J. H. Francis.

The productions of one gifted should be criticised by a literary, but the biography should be written by a personal friend. The incidents of the latter can seldom be called romantic, but that of Mrs. Hemans was full of so much spirituality, her intercourse with the kindred minds of her day so interesting, her life so lovely and beautiful, and death so angelic, that it needs but the faithful narrative of a sister, and not the foreign ornament of the generous to add lustre thereto. Hence this is the best Memoir of Mrs. Hemans yet written, and that is not all, for an additional attraction is lent to the volume by Mrs. Sigourney's Essay. Milton's saying that he "who would write poetry must make his life an epic," has here a strong analogical illustration—that it requires a *poet's pen* to describe a *poet's power*.

Our readers will find in the discriminating essay of Mrs. Sigourney, who has been sometime called the "Hemans of America," and in the truthful memoir, all the noble subject demands, and if they can read either with an undisturbed spirit, they have more marble in their nature than can be easily melted.

4.—*Memoir of the late Rev. Alexander Proudfit, D. D., with Selections from his Diary and Correspondence, and Recollections of his Life, by his Son.* By JOHN FORSYTH, D. D., Minister of Union Church, Newburgh. New York: Harper & Brother.

If, as Pope says, "the proper study of mankind is man," our daily intercourse with the living and communion with the departed, through their works, and the memorials of their lives presented to us by the impartial biographer, afford the best, and perhaps the only means of pursuing the study with advantage. The subject of the present memoir was an eminent and sincere minister of the Presbyterian Church, exhibiting in his life and conversation many traits of character that are worthy of all acceptation. His early years and education, number of good resolutions, diary, spiritual life, personal trials, pastoral efforts, last days, etc., are all comprised in this volume, and what renders it peculiarly interesting to us, is the statement, that a truly catholic spirit, and tenderness of the reputation of others were marked traits of his character. "*He spoke not ill of his neighbor.* If he could not speak well of a person, he would at least be silent; but the case was rare indeed in which he could not find some ground of commendation."

5.—*The Wandering Jew.* By EUGENE SUE. A new and elegant Translation. Profusely illustrated by the most eminent artists of Paris. In Two Volumes. New York: Harper & Brothers.

This remarkable romance, which has been read by millions, is too well known to require notice at this late day. Our only object at this time is to refer to the splendid edition, the first volume of which has just been completed. It is profusely illustrated, with characteristic designs and engravings executed in Paris, of the scenes and incidents that give interest to the story, and the characters that are described with so much power by the master mind of Sue. It is the only beautiful edition that has been published in this country.

6.—*The History of John Martin, a Sequel to the Life of Henry Milner.* By MRS. SHERWOOD, author of the History of the "Fairchild Family," "Orphans of Normandy," etc. New York: Harper & Brothers.

Mrs. Sherwood has long been known to the readers of fiction, and has a large class of admirers. Impressed with the importance of a religious life, all her writings are designed to promote that end. In the present history the trials and temptations of a young minister are detailed with the writer's characteristic power. Her works of late years have less of the sectarian and more of the practical, and will therefore, doubtless, secure a wider circulation.

7.—*Sketches from Life by the late Laman Blanchard, Edited, with a Memoir of his Life.* By EDWARD LYTTON BULWER, Bart. In 2 Parts. New York: Wiley & Putnam's Library of Choice Reading.

The popular and original character of these sketches, the melancholy fate of their gifted and lamented author, and not a little the touching memoir of his life by Bulwer, have made this an attractive work to all classes. No one, we think, has read it without mourning for the terrible circumstance which deprived poor Blanchard of life and the world of his genius. And though more noisy and tumultuous strugglings of men may have gained admirers, none to us has the deep beauty of this ardent soul, battling with the noblest of God's gifts, for that, which the very slave gets with the meanest of weapons. The papers here gathered are full of the digested wisdom of the world, and much of inspiration. They were written as occasion called them forth for periodicals, and display *the man* more than a longer or more permanent work.

8.—*Stories from the Italian Poets, being a Summary in Prose of the Poems of Dante, Pulci, Berando, Ariosto and Tasso, with Comments throughout, Occasional Passages Versified, and Critical Notices of the Lives and Genius of the Authors.* By LEIGH HUNT. In Three Parts. New York: Wiley & Putnam.

No translations have yet been made from the works of these narrative poets, the great pioneers of a refined national literature, more faithful, and embodying more clearly the spirit of the original. They have previously been translated into poetry; but with the exception of a few passages, the polished and elegant taste of Leigh Hunt has transformed them into English prose, and the difficulties of versification being thus set aside, they reflect more strongly the true meaning and effect of the originals The critical or rather biographical notice of the five poets, and of Dante in particular, are highly valuable, written in Leigh Hunt's best style, and exhibiting a most correct knowledge of their true history and characters.

9.—*Explanations: a Sequel to "Vestiges of the Natural History of Creation."* By the Author of that work. New York: Wiley & Putnam, 161 Broadway.

The statement of the *nebular hypothesis* regarding the arrangement of the bodies in space are given in the "Vestiges of Creation" attracted universal attention. It has been thought that it had a sceptical influence, and a strong article appeared against it in the Edinburgh Review, as an answer to which this "sequel" has been published; the author contending that it has not the infidel or Atheistical tendency charged upon it, and that instead of conflicting with the Mosaic account of creation, it only describes the mode of creation by the Deity. Much of the evidence adduced in support of his hypothesis, is obtained from an examination of geology, fossil remains, etc. While its logical power and scientific research elicits our highest admiration, the noble conceptions which the subject and the grand ideas here presented awaken, must have the most lofty effect upon the mind.

10.—*A Defence of Capital Punishment.* By the Rev. George B. Cheever, D. D., and an Essay on the Ground and Reason of Punishment, with special reference to the Penalty of Death; by Taylor Lewis, Esq., with an Appendix containing a Review of Burleigh on the Death Penalty. New York: Wiley & Putnam.

We rejoice at the publication of this essay, for we have no fear for the final triumph of truth. Our only regret is, that so much learning should be devoted to sustain one of the lingering relics of an antiquated barbarism—that a professed member of the Gospel should be found arrayed in support of the gallows. The "life for life" doctrine, we are satisfied, is unnecessary, and entirely opposed to the spirit of Him who demanded the "eye for an eye," and the "tooth for a tooth," precepts of the "old time."

11.—*Tales from the German of Heinrich Zschokke.* By Park Godwin. Part II. New York: Wiley & Putnam's Library of Choice Reading.

We noticed the first volume or part of the present series of tales in terms of merited commendation. Mr. Godwin has displayed his undisputed literary taste and judgment in the selections here made from the voluminous Zschokke, and given us from that author, "Illumination; or the Sleep Walker;" "The Broken Cup;" "Jonathan Finch;" "the Involuntary Journey," and "Leaves from the Journal of a Poor Vicar in Wiltshire," in a very readable and attractive English dress.

12.—*Jerusalem Sinner Saved: The Pharisee and the Publican, &c. &c.* By John Bunyan. To which is appended an exhortation to Peace and Unity. With a Life of Bunyan. By the Rev. James Hamilton. New York: Wiley & Putnam.

The works of Bunyan, and particularly the "Pilgrim's Progress," are too well known to require comment. Our object at this time is merely to notice the "cheap religious publication scheme," by which the works of the English Puritan Divines are to be beautifully printed in 12mo volumes of about 350 pages, and are published every three months, at $1 50 for the four first volumes. The design contemplated in the present scheme is to bring within the reach of all classes of the religious public the invaluable writings of the English Puritan Divines; and while the series will comprise works by well known authors, such as Howe, Baxter, Bunyan, Charnock, &c., many others will be printed, now in a great measure unknown. Every work is to be printed without abridgment. So well, says the circular of Messrs. Wiley & Putnam, the American Publishers, has this new undertaking been received in England, that before the first volume was ready, the publishers had obtained 70,000 subscribers.

13.—*Handbook of Young Artists and Amateurs in Oil-Painting; being chiefly a Condensed Compilation from the celebrated Manual of Bouvier, with Additional Matter, selected from the Labors of Merimee de Montalbert, and other Distinguished Continental Writers in the Art, etc., etc.* By An American Artist. New York: Wiley & Putnam.

This artistic looking volume is designed, by the method of its arrangements and the completeness of its details, as well for a text-book in academies of both sexes, as for self-instruction. It is systematically arranged into seven parts, treating of the materials and implements of the art, and certain matters holding a middle place between the materials and practice—the first palette, or dead coloring, the finishing palette, the painting of draperies, landscape painting, and finally, of the varnishing, cleaning, repairing, and lining of pictures. Appended to the volume, is a new explanatory and critical vocabulary, which will be found extremely useful to amateurs and literary critics.

14.—*Lectures on the Pilgrim's Progress, and on the Life and Times of John Bunyan.* By the Rev. George B. Cheever. Third edition. New York: Wiley & Putnam.

The true relation between Bunyan, the man and Christian, and the author of the Pilgrim's Progress, and the identity between the author's own personal experience and that beautiful allegory, is distinctly laid before us in these lectures. Mr. Cheever, from the peculiar direction which his mind has taken, as a scholar and theologian, as well as his sympathy with, and similarity of belief to Bunyan's, is well calculated to enter into the spirit of the Puritan's character, and define his doctrines; and though, from his partiality towards that sect, there is a slight sectarianism in regard to those periods in Bunyan's life and times about which there have been two systems of historical faith, yet we consider the book a true interpretation of the "Pilgrim's Progress," and as tracing the connection between the progress of religion and the different degrees of divine life in Bunyan's soul, his passage through the "valley of humiliation," and "of the shadow of death." Mr. Cheever's popular style of writing and lecturing will make the book especially welcome to those who, thinking alike with him on doctrinal points, are his peculiar admirers.

15.—*The Oath, a Divine Ordinance, and an Element of the Social Constitution; its Origin, Nature, Ends, Efficacy, Lawfulness, Obligations, Interpretation, Form, and Abuses.* By D. X. Junkin, A. M., pastor of the Presbyterian church Greenwich, N. J. New York: Wiley & Putnam.

The object of this volume is concisely stated in the title-page quoted. In the introduction, the importance of the subject is discussed, and in the thirteen chapters which follow, the author attempts to show that the oath is an ordinance of God, and the means he has appointed for securing truth in witness-bearing, for the furtherance of justice between man and man—an element of government, that without the other provisions of the institution may prove powerless. It is written in a plain and forcible style.

16.—*Poetical Works of John Keats.* In 2 Parts. New York: Wiley & Putnam's Library of Choice Reading.

The poetical portion of this "Library" will have few treasures of more worth than these, and their republication will be a treat to all who can appreciate the intense but beautiful genius that burned so brilliantly at its close. The critics of his day trode harshly upon these English flowers, but a later time has gathered them, and few grown in any garden can equal their frail beauty, and the true character of Keats and his works are now fully and deeply appreciated by the world. The chaste and classic sport breathing through "Lamia" and "Hyperion," which with "Isabella" and "the Eve of St. Agnes," his greatest works, are scarcely equalled by any modern poet. The poems of the critic-murdered bard will never be read without sorrow, that their author's budding and brightly promising life should be crushed so early, or without deep admiration for their many excellencies.

17.—*Over the Ocean; or Glimpses of Travel in Many Lands.* By a Lady of New York. New York: Paine & Burgess.

Another book of travels in that charming form which Miss Sedgwick adopted—of Letters to Friends at Home. This "New York Lady" spent many happy weeks in England and on the Continent, as these graphic pictures from travel life testify. She apologises for the haste in which they were written, but why, we cannot divine, for this is their best feature. Of scenes so often described, the most hasty impressions are the best, and if it was not her intention, she has unconsciously added a great charm, in constantly relieving one description by another, and presenting a continuous panorama. We should like to make the same journey with her as a companion, and in reading her book we half fancy ourselves sailing up the Clyde, or on the Elbe, driving through the valleys of the Tyrol, or over the plains of Andalusia. The volume is very handsomely printed by our worthy friend G. W. Wood.

18.—*Man in the Republic.* A Series of Poems by CORNELIUS MATHEWS. A New Edition. New York. Paine & Burgess.

It is well known that Mr. Mathews has received much praise from critics both of England and America, and that this collection of Poems, though nearly a first effort, has succeeded well. In this he has received but justice, for they are highly meritorious, and that we think in a most material point—the grand idea developed in them, as a whole, and the completeness which the union and effect of the isolated parts give to it. The Child, Father, Teacher, Citizen, Farmer, Mechanic, Merchant, Soldier, Statesman, Friend, Painter, Sculptor, Journalist, Reformer, Poor Man, Scholar, Preacher, and the Poet, form the subjects of the volume, and the "Man in the Republic."

19.—*The Cousins: a Tale of Early Life.* By the author of "Conquest and Self-Conquest," "Praise and Principle," &c. New York: Harper & Brothers.

Although the fair author of this story says "it is a child's book, and nothing more;" it may be read by children of a "larger growth" with profit and pleasure. It is intended to show the beauty and excellence, e'en in the earliest dawn upon the soul, of that charity which "envieth not, vaunteth not itself, is not puffed up, doth not behave itself unseemly."

20.—*The Manual of Matrimony and Connubial Companion; Gathered together for the Safety of the Single and the Weal of the Wedded.* By A BACHELOR. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

Quaintness and wisdom, like righteousness and peace, meet and kiss each other in this little volume. In brief, it embraces Jeremy Taylor's "famous pair of sermons" on the "Marriage Ring," and a sermon by William Secker, now first published in America from the London edition of 1700, with the unique title—"A Wedding-Ring fit for the Finger; or, the Salve of Divinity on the Sore of Humanity, laid open in a Sermon at a Wedding in St. Edmonds."

21.—*Miscellaneous Sermons.* By the REV. SIDNEY SMITH, A. M., late Fellow of New College, Oxford, Rector of Foston, in Yorkshire, Preacher at the Foundling, and at Berkley and Fitzroy Chapels. Complete in One Volume. Philadelphia: Carey & Hart.

This volume contains about fifty sermons of this well known and eccentric clergyman, most of which are short as they were delivered, and as all sermons should be. Some of them are didactic, some logical and disputative, a few sectarian, and all combining the practical with the philosophical. There is added to them a paper of some length, entitled, "A Fragment on the Irish Roman Catholic Church," which will let us into the merits of the relation between England and Ireland religiously. The sermons are written, not like many, obscurely and in involved sentences, but in a pungent, clear and forcible style, with little illustration. He is a plain, direct writer, and that faculty unaided by artificial striving for effect, has, doubtless, been the secret of his wide spread popularity.

22.—*The Sportsman's Library: or, Hints on the Hunter—Hunting—Hounds—Sporting—Game—Sporting-Dogs, Fishing, &c.* By JOHN MILLS, author of "the Old English Gentleman," "the Stage Coach, or the Road of Life," "the English Fireside," &c. Philadelphia: Lea & Blanchard.

This is an original work, and not a mere compilation from previous writers, by one who has made "field sports" the study, the thought, the occupation of life—who, moreover, sought information wherever and whenever it was to be obtained, never permitting an opportunity to pass of testing, at the earliest period, the rules laid down for the guidance of the sportsman. As a book of instruction and of reference, as to every subject connected with sportsmanship, with our limited knowledge, we consider it the most perfect and complete, as it is the most recent work yet published.

23.—*Travels over the Table Lands and Cordilleras of Mexico, during the years 1843 and 1844; including a Description of California, the Principal Cities and Mining Districts of that Republic, and Biographies of Iturbide and Santa Anna.* By ALBERT M. GILLIAM, late United States Consul to California. With Maps and Plates. Philadelphia: John M. Moore.

The present disturbed condition of political affairs in Mexico, and the unsettled state of our relations with that unhappy republic, will give enhanced value to a work like the present, in which we find a mass of information on almost every topic connected with its history, political and social condition and prospects. Mr. Gilliam enjoyed rare advantages from his long residence, and an internal trade over the country of almost four thousand miles; and to show that he has improved his time and opportunities, it is only necessary to examine the volume before us, which affords abundant evidence of acute observation and dispassionate research. The work is well calculated to excite a good share of interest, and at the same time imparts a variety of information that will be new to the general reader. It is well remarked, that whilst other countries have industriously had their geographical, geological and mineral surveys, Mexico has remained inert, and satisfied with the gloom and ignorance in which the first revolution found her, the philosophical stores of her dominions are locked up from the world, and only probed here and there by foreign research. This work is admirably calculated to awaken in the American reader a due appreciation of the prosperity of the United States, in the possession of a land unequalled in its resources; and, above all, as a people truly enjoying constitutional liberty and freedom of conscience. On the whole, this is one of the most interesting and instructive volumes of travel that has for a long time made its appearance.

24.—*Household Verses.* By BERNARD BARTON. Philadelphia: J. M. Moore.

After "a silence" of nine years, Bernard Barton, the pure and beautiful poet of the affections that cluster around the domestic fireside, comes to us with his eighth volume of "Verses," as he modestly calls it, in "trustful reliance on its indulgent reception by a public from whom I have," he says, "never met with aught but courtesy and kindness:" and how could it be otherwise of one who is filled with the inspiration of goodness—of one who has beautifully because truthfully said—

"For love to God may be pronounced *divine*
When love to man becomes its genuine fruit."

The poems contained in this volume, of a favorite with us in early youth, and still so in more mature manhood, are similar in their tone and tendency to those published in the seven volumes which have preceded them. We should be glad to see this volume in every "household," as it cannot fail of diffusing a sweet and heavenly radiance over the "dwellers of a thousand homes." It forms, in every respect, as handsome a volume as the American press has ever, to our knowledge, produced.

25.—*The Puritans and their Principles.* By EDWIN HALL. New York: Baker & Scribner.

The appearance of a work of the character of this volume, at a time when great questions touching church government, etc., are agitating the theological world, is certainly well chosen; and in Mr. Hall, our Puritan fathers have found an able and zealous exponent and defender of their principles. The work is designed to set forth the cause which brought the Pilgrims to this continent; to exhibit their principles, to show their wealth, and what it cost to maintain them; to vindicate the character of the Puritans from the aspersions which have been cast upon them, and to show the Puritanic system of Church Polity as distinguished from the Prelatic; which he maintains with an almost irresistible show of argument—is broadly and solidly based on the word of God; inseparable from religious Purity and religious Freedom, and of immense permanent importance to the best interests of mankind. The author has certainly succeeded in bringing together matters of historical information of which no descendant of the Puritans should be ignorant, and of which an adequate knowledge can scarcely be attained, without an expenditure for books, and a labor of research, beyond the means and leisure of most people in the ordinary walks of life. That the Puritans were faultless we are not prepared to admit;—their errors and the asperities of their nature belonged to the age, originating in the circumstances that surrounded them. But they were undoubtedly Providential men, raised up to kindle the precious spirit of Liberty; and it is to them, as the unbelieving Hume declared, that "the English owe the whole freedom of their constitution." Mr. Hall has appended to his volume an elaborate and searching review of Dr. Colt's "Puritanism," published a few months since by D. Appleton & Co.

26.—*Littel's Living Age.* Boston: Watie, Peirce & Co.

This work has reached its 94th number, and we have no hesitation in saying with the venerable ex-President Adams, that "of all the periodical journals devoted to literature and science, which abound in Europe and in this country, this appears to be the most useful." A Part, of 48 royal octavo pages, is published every Saturday. Thirteen numbers complete a volume of more than 600 pages, or four volumes a year. Seven volumes were published previous to 1846, which are sold at $10 50.

27.—*Pocket Editions of Select Novels. Without Abridgement. No. 13.—The Robbers, a Tale.* By G. P. R. JAMES, Esq. 18mo. 2 vols. in one. New York: Harper & Brothers.

James' works are familiar to most novel readers, and it is only necessary for us to say in this place, that the publishers have thus far made judicious additions to this series of "pocket editions" of "select novels." Four hundred and thirty-eight pages of letter-press is cheap—very cheap at 25 cents.

28.—*Poems of Many Years.* By RICHARD MONCKTON MILNES. A New Edition. Boston: Wm. D. Ticknor & Co.

There is evidently an expression of much personal feeling in these poems, for many of them bear the marks of coming directly from the heart. They are clothed in simple and elegant diction, with very little artificial ornament, and if common place and didactic in subject, there is, nevertheless, much in them original and philosophical. He has classified them under various heads, as "The Book of Youth," "Book of Friendship," "Book of Love," etc. But the most attractive feature to us is the spirit of feeling and sympathy with the sufferings and trials of the laboring poor, displayed in those poems which he heads "Poetry of the People," and the "Lay of the Humble." The poets of the day have rightly found this to be the noble mission of Genius, the great Epic of the age. There are one hundred poems in the volume, and none are bad. A more beautiful style of publication has not been offered to the American public, than that in which this appears, and the other volumes lately issued by Ticknor & Co. are not inferior to the best English volumes, which they much resemble.

29.—*A Discourse on the Life and Character of George Calvert, the first Lord Baltimore.* By JOHN P. KENNEDY, delivered before the Maryland Historical Society, December 1, 1845. Being the Second Annual Address to that Association. Baltimore: J. Murphy.

The incidents of life and character of the Catholic pioneer, whose influence can be still perceived in Maryland Institutions are most happily dwelt upon in this admirable discourse by one of the most finished scholars that have graced our legislative halls. To the praiseworthy society before whom it was delivered, it must be invaluable, and it will fill a void in the historical knowledge of our countrymen which should not be left vacant. The facts are from the best authority, and handsomely set forth, and the character of Lord Baltimore impartially given.

30.—*Fragments of Medical Science and Art.* An Address delivered before the Boston Medical Society of Harvard University. By HENRY J. BIGELOW, M. D., President of the Society. Boston: Wm. D. Ticknor & Co.

An elaborate and learned address. We have rarely seen more science crowded into so short a space, or made so interesting to all. The Doctor's view of his subject is original and profound. He looks upon the practice of medicine not merely as a physician, but as a christian and man, and his advice will not be thrown away upon a class to whom they are really applicable.

31.—*Poems:* by OLIVER WENDELL HOLMES. London: O. Rich & Co. Boston: Wm. D. Ticknor & Co.

Few American poets have more originality than Dr. Holmes exhibits in his touching, beautiful sentiment, or in his racy, flowing humor. His keen perception of the ridiculous displays itself in every line of the humorous poems—a field that few dare to venture in, but in which he is at home and unexcelled. A comprehensive memoir of Dr. Holmes is prefixed to the volume. It is issued in a neat, classic style, on beautiful paper, and will be a rich accession to the "Poetry of America."

32.—*The Artists of America: a Series of Biographical Sketches of American Artists. with Portraits and Designs on Steel.* By C. EDWARDS LESTER, author of "the Artist, the Merchant, and the Statesman." New York: Baker & Scribner. No. 1.

As we shall have farther opportunity of referring to this work as it progresses, we will only say at this time, that the object of this work is by a more general diffusion of the most authentic information relative to our painters, sculptors, and engravers, and their works, to make them better known at home; and that the first number contains a correct portrait of Allston, and an admirable sketch of his life and character.

33.—*The Theatrical Apprenticeship and Anecdotal Recollections of Sol. Smith, Comedian, Attorney at Law, etc., etc. Comprising a Sketch of the First Five Years of his Professional Life; together with Sketches of Adventure in after years.* Philadelphia: Cary & Hart.

This is the first of a series of volumes to be published under the general title of "The Library of Humorous American Works." This first volume is replete with adventure, humor and amusement; and although its aims are not, of course, the highest, it is free from obscene and impure jests and innuendoes; and should it fall into the hands of the melancholy and desponding, its publication will not be altogether useless.

34.—*Sparks's American Biography, Vol. VIII. Second Series. Life of Charles Lee, by* JARED SPARKS. *Life of Joseph Reed, by his Grandson.* Boston: Charles C. Little and James Brown.

Few biographies that have appeared in the second series of this admirable library will be read with more interest than these. That of Charles Lee, whose exploits at the head of his gallant legion in the Southern campaigns of our revolution, were of such signal service to the American cause, is justly worthy of Mr. Spark's personal labor, and he has devoted himself to the task with all his usual ardor and distinguished ability. His materials were the letters and the personal and original documents of General Lee, and in weaving them together, he has added much to the interest the heroic deeds themselves possess. Joseph Reed deserves a bright page in our country's annals; for his noble refusal of British bribery giving the enemy the same distrust in their power of weakening the integrity of our statesmen, that the skill and prowess of General Lee did that of our warriors. His memoir is written by his nephew, and considering the indebtedness of our republic to his virtues, should be read by every American. It is in a measure for this age, but more for those to come, to appreciate.

THE

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HUNT'S

# MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE.

APRIL, 1846.

## Art. I.—SKETCHES OF VENETIAN HISTORY AND COMMERCE.*

In the year 452, Attila, king of the Huns, emerging from the forests of Germany with a vast horde of Scythian soldiers, spread them like a pestilence over the rich and fertile plains of northern Italy; and the fearful threat of the barbarian conqueror, that "the grass never grew where his horse once trod," was fulfilled upon the devoted heads of almost the entire population of the country; and as he passed onwards at the head of his fierce Goths, cities, towns, and villages, upon which the morning sun had shone in peace and security, were left at its going down heaps of smoking ruins. Infancy and old age, and the weakness of woman, herself, met alike the same death with the strong-armed soldier, who opposed in vain that resistless band which had never met a reverse, and which, after depopulating the east, seemed to grow more blood-thirsty as they approached the imperial city. The inhabitants of many towns yet unreached by the conqueror, not daring to face the approaching tempest, and seeking only peace and security, abandoned their houses and country to the victors, and fled to the numerous islands situated along the northern shores of the Adriatic Gulf. These islands promised them refuge from pursuit, and security for their property. An invader, like Attila, who sought for spoil and plunder, could find little to attract him amidst these desolate and barren islands, which, though numerous, offered no inducement to an enemy in search of glory, wealth, or conquest. About the mouths of the many rivers which discharge themselves into this gulf, these islands are situated, and are partly protected from the sea by long intervening slips of land, which serve as so many natural breakwaters, and partly by deposits of sand and sea-weed, which, neither sea nor land, extend at the present day thirty miles from the shore. This whole expanse is called the Lagoon,

* Anniversary address, delivered before the Young Mens' Mercantile Library Association of Cincinnati, April 16, 1844, by John W. Ellis, now first published in this Magazine by the request of that association.

and is navigable for large vessels only under the charge of experienced pilots. The inner harbors are safe and commodious, and are well adapted to the extensive commerce of which they afterwards became the centre.

These wretched fugitives from the wrath of Attila, after becoming established in their new homes, subsisted by fishing, and the manufacture of salt, and the very scanty vegetation which the sandy soil of the island produced. Each principal island was governed by a tribune, until the year 697, when, in consequence of new disorders in Italy, a considerable number of fresh refugees seeking an asylum in these islands, the necessity was felt of adopting a system of government better suited to the exigencies of the rising state, than the indefinite system which had till then been acted upon; and it was wisely determined to confide into a single hand the power which had been heretofore divided among the various tribunes. The new officer was called Doge. His patronage and prerogatives were almost unlimited, and he was elected for life.

Two centuries and a half rolled around, and the scanty returns from the laborious occupations of these hardy colonists began to produce their fruits, and gradually the inhabitants grew in wealth, power, and importance. The whole bosom of the Northern Adriatic was a hive of industrious islanders, who found there that security of which the rest of Italy was deprived. The sixty islands that clustered around Rialto, were connected with it and each other by bridges; a new capital arose within their circuit, a cathedral and a ducal palace were founded on the spot which they still occupy, and the name of the province on terra firma, Venezia, from which the citizens derived their origin, was given to the metropolis which they were creating. Such, in the year 809, was the birth of Venice.

In our own country, we behold, without surprise, the creation in half a century of a rich city, and an extended commerce; but in those days of slothful progress, men were influenced less by a spirit of enterprise, than the predictions of astrology or pretended prophecy; and how great would have been the incredulity, had the wisest of their devotees foreseen that from the little band of refugees gathered together on these desolate islands, so small and narrow that the rising tides almost hid them beneath their waves, there would, within two or three centuries, spring up a nation so powerful, a city so wealthy, a community so intelligent and sagacious, and a government so eminently "wise in their generation," that every nation in Europe should ask their aid, and seek their counsel;—could they have foreseen that from this little band of refugees, a republic should spring, upon whose consent depended the very existence of those vast projects which engaged the attention of all Christendom—the armament of the Crusaders;—could they have foreseen that from this source a republic should spring, whose army was to overthrow and subjugate the empire of the Constantines;—could they have foreseen that from the fishing vessels of the Lagoon, should spring that mighty commercial navy which was destined to gather into one great mart the untold wealth of Europe, Asia and Africa. How great would have been their incredulity, could the poor salt-makers of the Rialto have been foretold, that from their scattered habitations, should spring the most magnificent and wealthy city of the middle ages! The progress of our own country, in its vast development of wealth and resources, with all the advantages of modern science and civilization, was far surpassed by that of Venice, if, in the comparison, we duly estimate the various circumstances under which the two re-

publics attained their greatness. This surprising progress was made amidst a surrounding barbarism, so great that even the genius of an Alfred, or a Charlemagne, could scarce redeem the history of their time from almost an entire blank. The elements of this prosperity are to be found in the vigor, strength, and energy of a young and growing nation, ambitious of wealth and distinction, freed from the deadening weight of feudal law and exactions, encouraged by a firm and jealous government, ever alive to the pecuniary advantages of its citizens, and its own political supremacy; a government which, with all its advantages, has been a mystery and a riddle to the rest of mankind.

In the year 827, eighteen years after the founding of the city, the captains of ten Venetian vessels trading in the harbor of Alexandria, (a fact showing the extent of their commerce at that early day,) resolved to carry off by force or stratagem the body of St. Mark, which was said to be reposing in a church in that city. The wondrous miracles which had been wrought at his shrine, had strongly attached the Egyptian populace to his memory. The Venetian captains, by bribing the priests, succeeded in obtaining the body of the holy saint, but got it on board with great difficulty. During the voyage home, the fleet was in great danger from a violent storm, and all would have been lost, but for the timely appearance of the saint on deck, who, taking command of the vessels, ordered the bewildered crews to furl their sails. The joy of the Venetians knew no bounds on the arrival of this precious cargo. The city was solemnly consigned to his care, and the saint himself, or his lion, was blazoned on her standards, or impressed on her coinage—and the shouts of the populace, whether on occasions of sedition or joy, and the gathering cry of the armies of the republic in battle, was henceforth "*Viva San Marco!*"

Until the end of the tenth century, no great political events transpired in her history. Her largely extended commerce, by increasing her internal wealth and resources, had breathed into her government a desire for foreign conquest. The two centuries over which we have passed, had raised the small community of Venetians into a rich, powerful, and independent nation, and it had already become the commercial mart of Greece, and all the countries bordering on the Adriatic. In the year 991, the Doge concluded a treaty with the Greek emperor, and with the sultans of Syria and Egypt, acquiring exclusive and important privileges to the Venetians in the Levant. Pisa, Genoa, and Amalfi, subsequently her chief maritime competitors, were at that time hardly known. A few years afterwards the Doge conquered and took possession of the entire eastern coast of the Adriatic, as far as the Morea; and, with the consent of the Greek emperor, assumed the title of the Duke of Dalmatia.

During the next hundred years, Venice became greatly distinguished as a naval and military power. Her success in her wars with the king of Hungary, and the Patriarch of Aquilea, gave her citizens that confidence in their own strength and resources, which enabled her government to maintain a firm security amidst the convulsions of the surrounding nations. But it was the part borne by Venice in the wars of the Crusades, that rendered her most illustrious, and the results were greater than her most sanguine citizens dared look for. We cannot now look into the causes which summoned the whole Christian population of the west to the rescue of the Holy Land—we cannot say whether they were impelled by a widespread religious enthusiasm, more than a desire for conquest and wealth,

or to a love of romantic and perilous adventure. There can be no question that the prominent part which Venice bore in these expeditions must be attributed to reasons of commercial policy. However much she might wish to see the infidels expelled from the holy places of the east, and from the enjoyment of the vast wealth of Syria, her own interest demanded that she should not allow the other nations of Europe to become her rivals in the monopoly of the rich trade of the Levant, and she took part in these expeditions, even with the certainty of breaking her valuable connection with the Eastern empire. The brilliant results of the third Crusade amply rewarded the Venetians for their share in the enterprise. They distinguished themselves above all their allies for their single-hearted devotion and bravery at the siege of Tyre. The walls of this devoted city had been garrisoned by the joint forces of the sultans of Damascus and Egypt, and nineteen miles of ramparts bristled with armed defenders. The sea encompassed it on all sides, save where a channel, in its narrowest part more than half a mile in breadth, was crossed by the mole constructed by Alexander, 1400 years before, and which, if it bore witness that in the end Tyre might be won, proved at the same time the gigantic efforts demanded for its reduction. The conqueror of the world had almost abandoned this city in despair, nor was it till seven months of unparalleled toil, and the loss of more blood than all Persia cost him, that he entered its breach by storm. The most prodigious efforts of the first Crusaders had been vainly levelled against its walls; and for five months, amidst blood and carnage, the arms of the third Crusaders were now directed against it before it fell.

About the middle of the twelfth century, the Venetians were humbled by defeat, and disgraced by disasters, in their wars with the Eastern empire; but during all her national reverses, and she suffered many, which in future years brought her to the brink of destruction, the patriotism of her citizens was unbounded; and even when her people were suffering under the tyranny of her government and nobility, they yet fought and died under the banner of St. Mark, with a devotion rarely equalled.

Up to this time her government had been that of the simplest republicanism, and afterwards an elective despotism. The excessive power conferred on the Doge, at his election for life, was often abused, and this gave rise to numerous revolts and factions, which impaired the power of the state. No other authority appears to have existed except that of the Council of Forty, of whose origin and duties little is known, only that they acted as a check upon the power of the Doge, and they may be considered as the representatives of the most powerful families of the state, and were gradually acquiring the privilege of a strong hereditary nobility. To avoid the inconvenience of general assemblies of the people for the election of Doge, a Council of 480 was selected from the mass, to be renewed annually. From this body, still unwieldy, a Committee of Sixty was appointed to advise with the Doge on affairs of state. Another more private Council of Six was at the same time appointed, and were called Counsellors of the Red Robe, and were elected by the six different sections of the republic. The Doge, the Committee of Sixty, and the Council of Six, composed what may be called the Signory. Of these three divisions of government the Council of Forty may be considered as possessing the sovereignty, the Grand Council of 480 as forming the deliberative body,

and the Council of Six, acting through the Doge, as the executive department.

The strong jealousy of the members of the 480 produced another change, and in the year 1249 they renounced the election of Doge, and entrusted it to a commission drawn from their own body. This commission named another, which, reduced by lot to one-fourth, named a third, and by these alternate operations of lot and election, at length formed the last commission of forty-one members, who could elect the Doge only by a majority of twenty-five suffrages. This labyrinth of form preserved for several hundred years an entire purity in the election of the first officer of the republic, even amidst the wildest corruption and profligacy of its future days. But with all this care for the purity of his election, each succeeding year diminished the small remnant of power which he was still permitted to retain by a nobility which was rapidly acquiring the whole power of the state; and henceforward the Doge must be considered as little else than a state puppet, tricked out with a title and crown for purposes of pageantry, surrounded with pomp, but with little real power. As the nobility strengthened themselves, the people became weaker, and were soon a mere cipher. In the year 1297 the membership of the Grand Council was legally made hereditary in the aristocratic families of the city. And thus was founded that famous Venetian nobility, which was, in the language of Sismondi, "so prudent, so jealous, so ambitious—which Europe regarded with astonishment; immoveable in principle; unshaken in power; uniting some of the most odious practices of despotism with the name of liberty; suspicious and perfidious in politics; sanguinary in revenge; indulgent to the subject; sumptuous in the public service; economical in the administration of the finances; equitable and impartial in the public service; knowing well how to give prosperity to the arts, agriculture and commerce; beloved by the people who obeyed it, whilst it made the nobles, who partook its power, terrible." In 1315 a register was opened called the Golden Book, in which were inscribed the names of all those who had sat in the Great Council of 480. A few years afterward, all limitation of number was abolished, and the simple fact of being a descendant of one of its members, was a sufficient claim to entitle its possessor to a seat in the Grand Council. The government of the republic was completed by the establishment, in 1325, of the Council of Ten, a body possessed of the most extraordinary and unlimited power over the lives and property of every citizen of the state, from the Doge to the lowest fisherman of the Lido. Their proceedings were governed by what they called reasons of state. The public eye never penetrated the mystery of their proceedings. The dungeon and the rack produced all the evidence they required. The trial, the condemnation, and the death, were alike undivulged; and this odious tribunal, an object of terror and detestation to every class of citizens, maintained an unlimited sway to the very last days of the republic. At first instituted for the discovery and punishment of crimes against the state, it gained such power that it annulled at pleasure the decrees of the Grand Council, and degraded its members. The proceedings and the very existence of this tribunal have been a stumbling-block in the way of the Italian historians, and some have even affirmed that the long stability of Venice was chiefly owing to the most remarkable, the most formidable, and the most execrable part of her government—the Council of Ten.

For twenty years the whole of Christian Europe had been convulsed by the quarrels between the rival claimants for the vacant Papal throne, Victor IV., and Alexander III., the former backed by the powerful aid of the emperor, Frederick Barbarossa. Driven from Rome, Alexander passed many years in poverty and exile, depending for aid, and even a bare subsistence, upon the generosity of the neighboring princes. But all his disappointments and years of suffering could not break down that unconquerable spirit, which was destined, before his death, to place firmly under his spiritual dominion the king of England, as well as the proud Barbarossa. After years of pursuit and persecution from the German emperor, he at last, in the year 1177, threw himself on the generosity of the Venetian government, which at once took up the quarrel, and boldly carried it through to a successful issue. The Venetian and German fleets, the former commanded by the Doge in person, and bearing the pontifical blessing, met in the Adriatic; and, after a desperate battle of many hours, in which one hundred vessels were engaged, the Venetians came off completely victorious. Alexander hastened to meet the Doge, and a solemn ceremony, which continued to be celebrated as long as the republic existed, dates its origin from his gratitude. As soon as Ziani, the Doge, touched the land, the holy father presented him with a ring of gold. "Take," he said, "this ring, and with it take, on my authority, the sea as your subject. Every year, on the return of this happy day, you and your successors shall make known to all posterity that the right of conquest has subjugated the Adriatic to Venice as a spouse to her husband."

Of the many ceremonies to which the Venetians were so much attached, the marriage of the Adriatic appears to have been cherished by them with the greatest pride; and, during the long course of six hundred years, every return of the anniversary witnessed the repetition of her figurative nuptials. The Doge and officers of state having heard mass in the chapel of St. Mark, embarked on board the Bucentaur, a state galley, blazing with gold, and enriched with costly ornaments. Gliding through the canals amid festive shouts and triumphal music, this superb pageant arrived at the shore of the Lido, near the mouth of the harbor; and there the princely bridegroom, dropping a golden ring into the bosom of his betrothed, espoused her with this brief but significant greeting: "We wed thee with this ring in token of our true and perpetual sovereignty."

The defeat of the German emperor was followed by his deep personal humiliation, and on the restoration of Alexander, he asked an interview with him at Venice. The scene which followed, though familiar to all, is one of the most remarkable in history. Alexander, clothed in his pontifical robes, with the triple crown upon his brow, attended by the Doge, and surrounded by a brilliant throng of cardinals, prelates and ambassadors, removed from the arrogant Frederick his sentence of excommunication, and permitted him to approach. As the emperor drew near, he cast aside his princely vestments, prostrated himself at the holy father's throne, and crept onward that he might kiss his feet. With a feeling of pride and indignation, and the remembrance of a life of wrong and insult, the holy father, planting his foot on the neck of the prostrate emperor, repeated the words of David: "Thou shalt go upon the lion and the adder, the young lion and the dragon shalt thou tread under thy feet." The prince

remonstrated against the indignity, and Alexander placed his foot the second time more firmly upon the neck of his former enemy—

> ——" thus at last consoled
> For flight, disguise, and many an aguish shake,
> On his stone pillow."

The conduct of Alexander, in this scene, has been severely questioned by some historians, who regard it as the result of a petty feeling of revenge little consistent with his character as the representative of the meekness of the Saviour; others defend him upon these general grounds —that he was the true head of the church, and the vicar of the Saviour upon earth, and that what he had suffered in his own person, that church and that Saviour suffered also. Alexander's conduct during his twenty years of exile and persecution, proves that this was his own sincere belief.

No names of great personal distinction had yet shone in the annals of Venice; we now approach the history of her heroes and statesmen. Enrico Dandolo was elected the forty-second Doge in the year 1192, enfeebled by the burden of eighty-four winters, and deprived of sight. His long life of activity was crowned by an extreme old age, crowded with incidents of heroism and glory performed during the wars of the fourth Crusade, before the walls of Constantinople. When Fulk, a priest of Neuilly, near Paris, with the consent of Innocent III., had again aroused the dormant energies of Christendom, and the nations of the west of Europe were the fourth time confederated for the recovery of the Holy Sepulchre, ambassadors were again despatched to the Venetians for their consent and assistance, for without their ships and sailors the expedition could not be transported to the east. They joined the armies of the west, but only after such negotiations as assured them of a continued mercantile supremacy, and immense pecuniary advantages. It was on the 9th of October, 1202, that the fleet, bearing the armies of the fourth Crusade, unmoored from the harbors of Venice. A nobler armament had never sailed from port. Five hundred Venetian vessels stemmed the Adriatic. Of these, fifty were ships of war; one of giant size, the Mondo, being of two thousand tons burden. The army was composed of forty thousand Christian soldiers, amply supplied with stores, provisions, and artillery, and commanded by the Marquis of Montferrat. Circumstances which we cannot here relate, changed entirely the destination of the expedition; and instead of proceeding to Palestine, the Crusaders passed through the Dardanelles, and laid siege to Constantinople, the capital of the Eastern empire, and at that time the richest city in the world. For the events of this Crusade, the destruction of Constantinople, and the overthrow of the Greek empire, although closely connected with the history of Venice, I must refer you to the 40th chapter of Gibbon, whose glowing pictures display the brilliant power and ability of the great historian. During the long siege, the Venetians at sea, led on by old Dandolo, in his 97th year, and the French on land, vied with each other in deeds of heroism. The city was finally taken, and abandoned to the pillage of the soldiery, and never was a conquered city more completely ravaged by a horde of merciless barbarians. Her magnificent churches, and their contents of art, books, the entire literature of the time, pictures, statues, and the countless treasures which the luxury, and pride and wealth of nine centuries had collected, perished indiscriminately beneath the fury of the Christian army. The booty col-

lected was of immense value, amounting to about twelve millions of dollars, about twenty times the then annual revenue of Great Britain. The share of the Venetians was nearly five millions of dollars, and amongst other acquisitions, they removed to Venice the four famous horses of gilt bronze, which to the present day adorn the porch of St. Mark. These horses were brought originally from Alexandria by Augustus, and successively crowned the arches of Nero, Domitian, Trajan and Constantine. They were taken to Paris, by Bonaparte, but were restored to Venice in 1815. Dandolo and his army acquired a large extent of territory in Greece and the Ægean Sea, and he was permitted to annex to his title of Doge of Venice, those of Despot of Romania, and Lord of three-eighths of the Roman empire.

One of the most interesting, yet obscure passages in Venetian history, is that of the conspiracy and death of Marino Faliero, the 47th Doge. Distinguished by a long life of patriotic devotion to his country, and of distinguished public services, his extreme old age, like that of Dandolo and many others of his predecessors, was crowned by the acquisition of the ducal bonnet. History gives us few of the details of the conspiracy which resulted in the death of the first officer of the state, but whatever they were, the fearful ubiquity of the Council of Ten penetrated the mystery, and with their accustomed celerity, brought every conspirator to instant death. The head of the old Doge rolled down the Giant's Staircase, the entrance to his own palace, and the spot where he had taken the oath at his coronation. In the Hall of the Great Council are ranged to this day, in chronological order, the portraits of every Doge of Venice, save one. A black veil covers the frame left vacant for that of Marino Faliero.

It is not necessary to repeat here any of the details of those bloody intestine wars and feuds between the rival princes of the different governments which divided the whole of Italy. They continued for more than two hundred years previous to the fifteenth century, and greatly retarded that civilization and advancement, in which Italy, notwithstanding these drawbacks, far surpassed every other country.

If Venice was the Ocean Queen of the middle ages, she had now a competitor who bid fair to rival her in commercial wealth, grandeur and prosperity. Genoa, controlled by the firm hand of the Dorias, whose sagacious policy had extended her establishments in Spain, Syria and Greece, was rapidly acquiring that weight and influence in Italian politics of which Venice was the acknowledged head. "If Genoa had less wealth, she had equal enterprise, an equal thirst for gain, and equal ambition." Such commercial rivalry, encouraged by every element of discord, soon ended in general open hostilities between the two republics. This war was the most remarkable of all those which desolated Italy, and is familiar to the readers of her history, as the War of Chiozza. An enemy had never yet set foot in the streets of Venice, nor even nearly approached it—her very existence was now threatened by the Genoese, who took one of the outworks of the capital, and the Venetians sued for peace, upon any terms guaranteeing alone the independence of the city. They were refused, and becoming desperate in such an extremity, again attacked the enemy with success, and the Genoese had soon to lament the total loss of two fleets and a fine army. We may here observe that all these conquests were achieved by foreign generals—for the republic

never entrusted her own subjects with the command of armies—and that some of them, when success once forsook them, were cruelly and perfidiously put to death by the suspicious Council of Ten. These exploits gave a brilliant lustre to the reigns of Foscari, Gradenigo, Contarini and Loredano—names distinguished above all others among the statesmen of Venice—increased as they were by the great naval and military talents of such men as Pisani, Carmagnuola, and above all of Carlo Zeno, who may be considered the great naval hero of the middle ages. A Venetian by birth, he had passed a turbulent and reckless youth—grown to manhood, he was bold and daring in his nature; and filled with a love of wild adventure, he had cruised with his fleet, under the commission of his country, throughout the Mediterranean, acquiring immense wealth by the plunder of Genoese commerce. We cannot call him a pirate, but must regard him as we do those bold adventurers of the sixteenth century, Cavendish, Drake, Dampier and Raleigh, possessing the prominent traits of the hero, buccaneer and pirate. Now assisting the king of Cyprus in his wars, and again endeavoring to restore a deposed emperor to the throne of the east, he had been long absent from his country. But forsaking his pirate objects when his country was in danger, he flew to her rescue, and saved her from destruction.

Venice was forced to take part in the famous Italian wars of Charles VIII. and Francis I., the result of the league of Cambray, a combination of several of the most powerful of the European states, formed in 1508, and especially directed against her increasing power and influence. She came out honorably from the contest, though with the loss of all her possessions on the main land. Not the least interesting feature in the relation of these wars, are the achievements of those brave French knights, Bayard, and Gaston De Foix, renowned alike in history, song and story.

The end of the fifteenth century has been styled by modern writers the transition period of society; when the nations of Europe, enlightened by the art of printing, and enriched by the wealth of maritime discovery, were emerging from the barbarism of the feudal ages, to the progressive civilization of a later day. The same period we may consider the turning point of Venetian greatness—the epoch of her loftiest elevation. Some knowledge of her strength at this time may be learned from the fact, that the league of Cambray, cemented for her destruction, was composed of nearly all the leading powers of Europe, either of which possessed ten times the extent of her immediate territory. This league weakened, but did not destroy her.

It was at this period that her colonial possessions extended over the Adriatic, the Ægean Sea, and the Levant, embracing Dalmatia, Istria, and the Morea, the rich islands of Candia, Cyprus, and the Negropont; it was at this period that her busy commerce extended from the banks of the Po, to the British islands, and to the farthest confines of the Euxine, pouring into her coffers the riches of the "exhaustless east;" when her sailors and citizens were gorged with its wealth; when her nobles walked the streets in purple, and her merchants dwelt in palaces more splendid than those of a Henry or a Francis, and her gigantic might was felt to be oppressive by all Europe. It was then that her vast arsenals were full to overflowing, her cathedrals the most numerous and beautiful in Italy; her schools of literature, navigation, and the fine arts, frequented by the curious and the learned of every nation. Though the dust of Laura's lover

now rests in Arqua, yet his residence, and that of Erasmus, in Venice, have given her a reputation for the cultivation of letters inferior only to that of Florence under the Medici; and modern literature is indebted to her for the solid encouragement which she gave, in the persons of the Aldi and Jansen, to that art, which, above all others, has most beneficially affected the permanent welfare of mankind. To mention the name of Titian, and the Venetian school of painting, is an ample tribute to her promotion of the fine arts. Such were some of the many sources of wealth from which were derived the riches of the descendants of the fishermen of the Rialto, and such were the objects on which they were expended.

But alas! the picture changes, and it is the melancholy duty of the historian to mark the downward steps of that nation, whose onward course he has traced for a thousand years. The three last centuries of her existence show a gradual, at last a total decline from her early glories—a shadow of her former self, dragging out a weak and decrepid old age. An oligarchy ruled the state—incipient signs of decay appeared—the strength of her youthful constitution was gone—her wealth itself accelerated that ruin, commenced by her loss of that commerce, which was diverted into other channels by the discoveries of the Spanish and Portuguese navigators; and the manners of her people had become vile, profligate, and corrupt. Abandoning all hope of future conquest, she was content if she could preserve herself unharmed; and for the last hundred years of her independence, sought distinction as a general mart for pleasure, and endeavored to find in luxury a reward for her surrender of ambition.

But there are yet a few bright, glowing pictures in the histories of her wars against the Turks; when the valor and fortitude of her distant armies surpassed even the expectations of a government grown too effeminate to resist the encroachments of her continental neighbors. Early in the sixteenth century, the Mahomedans began to push their conquests towards the west of Europe. What new barrier had Christianity to oppose to the establishment of the despotism of the Ottomans, perhaps of the imposture of the prophet? Why, by the swords of this ferocious infidel soldiery, urged on less by a love of conquest than the courage of religious enthusiasm, should not the Koran usurp the place of the Bible? Why should not the fair plains of France and Italy, exhibit the daily religious spectacles of Jerusalem and Damascus? and why should not the sturdy Saxons of England have sent up their morning orisons to the Arab prophet? All this might have been, but for the valor of John Sobieski before the walls of Vienna, or the fortitude of the Venetians at the siege of Famagosta, the conquest of Candia, and the battle of Lepanto. Venice, in the language of Byron, was

"Europe's bulwark 'gainst the Ottomite."

And can we not, from this far distant land and age, look back and think we may owe our religious independence, in part, at least, to their heroic endurance? We do not now sufficiently appreciate the tremendous power which they opposed. So numerous were the Turkish army in Cyprus, that its commander boasted, after the siege of Famagosta, where he had lost 50,000 men, that if each of his remaining soldiers would throw but one slipper into the ditch, he might construct a level path to its battlements. The siege of Candia was sustained by the Venetians for twenty-four years, against a Turkish army so numerous that the place was only reduced after a loss of 150,000 of that vast army.

Much of the singularity of Venetian history and society, so different from the rest of Europe, a few hundred years ago, was the result of some prominent characteristics in her people and government. The chief of these was, the entire absence of the old feudal law and privileges, and the consequent progress in intelligence and civilization of those classes, which, in other states, were kept in ignorant servitude; a class which must always constitute at least the physical support of every nation; and though its populace were always overawed by her nobility, they yet had a feeling of stern independence unknown to the serf of the continent, united with a love and reverence for their own rulers, despotic as they were, for the quiet tranquillity which they invariably secured to every citizen during the wildest national commotions. These feelings were increased by those broad and liberal sentiments infused by her extensive foreign commercial intercourse, producing marked effect in the political and social condition of her population; an intercourse which has gone hand in hand with political liberty, personal rights, and intellectual cultivation, in the history of every modern nation; and the annals of every Italian state show a decline of these prerogatives, consummate with the destruction of their foreign commerce.*

Their great maritime pre-eminence was the result of many causes; chiefly to their position at the head of the Adriatic, as the natural depot for the trade between Europe and Asia; to their success in the manufacture of articles of silk, wool, linen, glass, salt and leather, and the unceasing encouragement which their government gave to everything like mercantile enterprise.

The results of their first adventures at sea, gave them an advantage over their competitors, which was never regained, and fed that avidity for wealth which characterized them at an early day. Every new colony added its share to her maritime, as well as her political strength; and her laws regulating her distant settlements, partook of that far-reaching and wise, yet selfish spirit, which so eminently marks the present English colonial system.

It is a remarkable fact in the history of Venice, and one that is unparallelled in that of any other nation, that her women have never, in a single instance, exerted the slightest political influence. They seldom appear as actors in the stirring scenes with which its annals are filled.†

It is not alone her wonderful rise and fall, her wealth and commerce, her mysterious government and proud nobility, with all their gilded despotism, the stories of her dungeons, her Lion's Mouth, and her Bridge of Sighs, the feuds of a Foscari and a Loredano, so beautifully told by Rogers, that fill the mind of the reader with a romantic interest; but here is the spot whereon were acted the realities of Otway and Radcliffe, and Schiller, and here are the scenes made immortal by the ideal creations of Shylock and Othello.

* If we adopt the views of Protestant historians, no better illustration of the free spirit of the Venetians can be given, than the stern pertinacity with which they resisted the efforts of the Popes to establish in their dominions what they conceived to be an ecclesiastical despotism, in an age when the edicts of Rome were powerful; and in no place where the Inquisition was established, did it as slightly promote the views of its founders. But in this resistance, it may be that the despotic Council of Ten dreaded a participation in its authority.

† The romantic stories of the Queen of Cyprus and Bianca Capello, alone relieve this blank in her history.

On a morning of summer, in the year 1498, a poor Portuguese pilgrim, clothed in rags, and who had wandered on foot from his native hills, appeared in the streets of Venice, and announced to its citizens that one of those daring navigators sent out by his king, had doubled the Cape of Storms, and discovered a new route to India. He was surrounded, and eagerly questioned by a throng of princes, merchants, and artisans. His answers struck terror in every heart. They saw at once that the partition wall of their monopoly was broken down; they saw the lucrative trade of the east transferred from the Lagoon to Lisbon and the Tagus; they saw that the rich merchandise which they gathered and dispersed throughout Europe, was destined to pass through other hands; they saw their ships rotting in their docks, and their sailors wandering idly about the streets; they heard the last motion of those looms which had produced the choice silken and woollen fabrics which had clothed the nobles of Europe; in a word, they rightly fancied they saw the destruction of that commerce whence came all their wealth, their luxury, and their pride; that commerce which had sent forth with the third army of the Crusaders two hundred ships, and with the fourth five hundred; that commerce whose mighty pulsations had been felt at the farthest extremities of the earth.

Here we have the remote, but the chief cause of the fall of Venice; the fall of a city, which, for one thousand years, never admitted an enemy within her wave-built walls; the fall of a nation, which, emerging from the ruins of the empire of the Cæsars, sunk into that of Napoleon; a nation whose existence connected the ancient with the modern world, the past with the present; a nation, which, for thirteen centuries, looked upon the wide stage on which the generations of men met and struggled.

In lingering over the splendid historic details of the nations of the earth, the greatest battles which have been fought, seem to be pointed out to us as the landmarks in the progress of the world's history, and the physical efforts concentrated in these encounters, are more dwelt upon than a thousand minor wars, incidents and influences, whose moral effects, scarce visible at the moment, are felt in the remotest ages of history. It is in this moral effect, that the name of Tell shall re-echo through the mountains of Switzerland, when that of Napoleon may be lost; that tradition shall speak of Bannockburn, when history has forgotten Waterloo; that the memory of the skirmish of a few thousand undisciplined volunteers on Bunker's Hill, shall be dear to all republicans, though future chronicles may forget to tell that a hundred thousand human skeletons were left to bleach at Eylau and Austerlitz. It is in this moral effect, that the commercial influence of the Italian cities, acting upon other nations, produced the discovery of America, and consequently all its vast results. It was this silent influence of the Italian maritime states, and subsequently that of the Hanse Towns, which stamps the present age with its distinctive future—that of commercial grandeur.

If the saying that "history is philosophy teaching by example," be true, can we, as members of a republican confederacy, aiming at perfection in government, have a more striking model for our contemplation, than the records of Venetian existence present, through so great a period of time? Her long list of errors, points out clearly this one lesson of wisdom—that the perpetuity of republican institutions demands from the body of the people a high degree of intelligence, and a strong patriotic faith. As lovers of such institutions, and believers in the principle of self-government, the

young men of our own country are bound to cultivate and practise these national virtues, and with them we must seek that general intelligence and mental improvement which is essential to our personal success and happiness. We are urged in this course by every consideration which can most strongly influence the actions of our lives; by a love of country, and our fellow men; by our faith in the democratic spirit of American institutions, by our pride of calling, and, if no higher motive can be offered, by that selfishness which aims alone at personal success. Let us persevere, then, in our efforts for the attainment of this political virtue, this patriotic faith, this general intelligence, until each of us can call understanding our kinswoman, and say unto wisdom, "Thou art my sister."

## Art. II.—THE INFLUENCE OF CLIMATE ON LONGEVITY:

### WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO LIFE INSURANCE.*

To determine the influence of climate on longevity, requires a collection of statistics extending over a wider surface of the earth, and a longer series of years, than any which has yet been furnished to the world.

Uniformity in the institutions, pursuits, and condition of the nations compared, will be a necessary element of the data, even after a sufficient basis of statistics shall have been collected; for Villermé, Quetelet, and Edwards, have shown, that even in the same climate, the length of life is materially affected by the occupation, and the mode of living of its inhabitants.

At the present time, therefore, all that we can do towards the elucidation of the "influence of climate on longevity," is, to form an approximate answer by an analysis of such facts as we can obtain.

Climate is well defined by Forry, "to constitute the aggregate of all the external physical circumstances appertaining to each locality in its relation to organic nature." The circumstances to which especial attention will be paid in this dissertation, are temperature, geological position, and, incidentally, weight of the atmosphere, and prevalence of winds.

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* This article, now first published, is an essay by James M'Cune Smith, M. D., of New York, which was offered to the consideration of the Boylston Medical Committee of Harvard University, on the occasion (April, 1845,) when the prize was awarded to Edward Jarvis, M. D. It had, for its motto—

"Ta makra d'éxenepein
Erukei me tethmos
Horai t'épeigomenai."

*Pind. Nem. Car. IV.*, 59.

and is one of the three concerning which the committee, in a published resolve, hoped "their authors may be induced to give the public an opportunity of reading these valuable and interesting essays." It is requisite to state that, by a standing published vote, the committee "do not consider themselves as approving the doctrines contained in any of the dissertations to which the premiums may be adjudged"—a vote which, of course, applies to an unsuccessful one.

The points in which this essay differs from the very able articles from the pen of Dr. Spare, which appeared in the 78th and 79th numbers of this Magazine, are the following:—

1st. The present article endeavors to fix a standard of longevity based upon the age of a living population.

2d. The tables are differently constructed, and with reference to the said standard.

3d. The data constituting the climate of localities, are given in connection with the longevity of the localities.

Longevity is not so readily described. In 1797, Dr. Odier, in the Bibliotheque Brittanique de Geneve, drew the conclusion "that the high ratio of centenarians does not imply an equally great probability of life, but the contrary." Mr. Rickman, of England, has also asserted "that the proportion of existing centenarians is no valid indication of national health and longevity. (New York Journal of Med., vol. 2, p. 319.) If 100 years, then, should be taken as the standard of longevity, the general longevity of any given people would be in the inverse ratio of the proportion who should attain the standard."

The scientific men of Geneva observed, "that if 90 years were to be taken as the extreme old age, the proportion of individuals of this age to the number of births, would be the standard of longevity." (Quetelet on Man; Edinburgh Translation, p. 3.)

How far a register of births is to be depended on, may be gathered from the following, which is copied from Alison on the Principles of Population, vol. 1, p. 135. "Humboldt observes that the difference between the population which should have existed from the register of births and deaths, and that actually shown by the returns in Great Britain, from 1801 to 1821, is a million of souls." The reason given by Humboldt for this discrepancy is, the immigration of 50,000 Irish per year. This, however, is not the fact, as the vast majority of the Irish who go into England and Scotland every year, only remain during the harvest, which they help gather, and then go back home to their families.

But even if the register of births could be depended upon, there are not a sufficient number of such registers extending back 90 years.

Neither would there be sufficient accuracy in an approximation of the number of births, measured by the increase of the population. The late Dr. Forry made the attempt in the following passage: "The whole colored population of the United States, which, in 1840, numbered 2,873,458, consisted in 1790 of but 698,682; and if we reduce it in the same proportion for fifty years more, when the centenarians of 1840 were born, and then divide the total colored population of 1740 with the centenarians of 1840, it will be seen that about 1 in every 85 colored individuals born, became a centenarian!" (N. Y. Journal of Med., vol. 1, p. 317.)

When we recollect that the slave-trade, for eighteen years after 1790, made constant additions to the colored population—additions of middle-aged and elderly, as well as of young persons; and further remember the horrible decimation by which this trade, both before and since 1790, cut off principally the young and feeble in the *middle passage;* and still further, that nearly all the subjects of this traffic had passed the dangerous period of infancy, before they were brought to the United States, it is clear that the basis of births which produced the centenarians of 1840, must be extended greatly beyond 85 to every centenarian.

There is a more general reason against making the registration of births during any given year, the basis from which to calculate the longevity of any people. The prevalence or absence of an epidemic fatal to children, the abundance or scarcity of bread,* might confer on the selected year a proportion of mortality, or health, or fecundity, above or below the

* Quetelet has shown that the mortality of the old and young are especially influenced by the price of bread, in Belgium.

average of the selected climate ;* or the same of the above causes, existing in different intensity,† in the selected year, in the different countries compared, might produce a difference in longevity, the result of these causes, not of a difference of climate.

The proportion of the mortality of a given population, is another basis by which some authors have endeavored to compute the longevity of a population. Dr. Prichard takes this view: he says "in some instances, according to the calculations of Mr. Moreau de Jonnès, the rate of mortality, and inversely the duration of life, differ by nearly one-half from the proportions discovered in other examples. The following is a brief extract from a table presented by this celebrated calculator to the institute. The table comprehends returns belonging to different periods, illustrative of the effect produced by political changes and improvements in the state of society on the duration of human life. I have omitted this part, and have only abstracted that which illustrates the influence of climate."

TABLE EXHIBITING THE ANNUAL MORTALITY IN DIFFERENT COUNTRIES IN EUROPE.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| In Sweden, | from 1821 to 1825,..... | 1 death in 45. |
| Denmark, | from 1819 to 1825,..... | 1 death in 45. |
| Germany, | from 1825 to 1825,..... | 1 death in 45. |
| Prussia, | from 1824 to 1824,..... | 1 death in 39. |
| Aus. emp., | from 1825 to 1830,..... | 1 death in 43. |
| Holland, | from 1824 to 1830,..... | 1 death in 40. |
| England, | from 1821 to 1830,..... | 1 death in 51. |
| Great Britain, | from 1800 to 1804,..... | 1 death in 47. |
| France, | from 1825 to 1827,..... | 1 death in 39. |
| Canton de Vaud, | from 1824 to 1827,..... | 1 death in 47. |
| Lombardy, | from 1827 to 1828,..... | 1 death in 31. |
| Roman States, | from 1828 to 1829,..... | 1 death in 28. |
| Scotland, | from 1821 to 1828,..... | 1 death in 50. |

"In approaching the equator," continues Prichard, "we find the mortality increase, and the average duration of life consequently diminish. The following calculation, obtained by the same writer, (Jonnès,) will sufficiently illustrate this remark."‡

| Latitude. | Places. | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 6° 10′ | Batavia,..... | 1 death in | 26 | inhabitants. |
| 10° 10′ | Trinidad,..... | " | 27 | " |
| 13° 54′ | Sainte Lucie,. | " | 27 | " |
| 14° 44′ | Martinique,.. | " | 28 | " |
| 15° 59′ | Guadaloupe,... | " | 27 | " |
| 18° 36′ | Bombay,..... | " | 20 | " |
| 23° 11′ | Havana,..... | " | 33 | " |

"In some localities," continues Prichard, "the mortality belongs in great part to strangers, principally Europeans, who, coming from a different climate, suffer in great numbers. The separate division from which the collective numbers above given are deduced, will sufficiently indicate these circumstances."

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* "On remarqué en Belgique que les années où le pain était le plus ou le moins cher, ont coincidé avec les années où l'on comptait le plus ou le moins de décès, et le moins ou le plus de naissances." (Quetelet Recherches sur la Reproduction et la Mortalité de l'homme, p. 81.)

† In England, according to the 5th Report of Register General, p. 375, Second Edition, the number of deaths from scarlatina was as follows:—In 1838, 5,062; 1839, 10,320; 1840, 19,816; 1841, 14,161.

‡ Notice sur la population des etats de l'Europe, par M. Moreau de Jonnes.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| In Batavia, 1805, | Europeans died, | 1 in 11. |
| " " | Slaves " | 1 in 13. |
| " " | Chinese " | 1 in 29. |
| " " | Javanese, viz: *Natives*, | 1 in 40. |
| In Bombay, 1815, | Europeans died, | 1 in 18.5. |
| " " | Mussulmans " | 1 in 17.5. |
| " " | Parsees, viz: *Natives*, | 1 in 40. |
| In Guadaloupe, 1811 to 1824, | whites died, | 1 in 22.5. |
| " " " | free men of color died, | 1 in 35. |
| In Martinique, 1825, | whites died, | 1 in 24. |
| " " | free men of color died, | 1 in 23. |
| In Grenada, 1815, | slaves died, | 1 in 22. |
| In St. Lucie, 1802, | slaves died, | 1 in 20. |

(Researches into the Physical History of Mankind, by J. C. Prichard; vol. 1, p. 116–118. London, 1836.)

It is scarcely necessary to observe that these tables do not confirm Dr. Prichard's views. The last table entirely overthrows the inference he draws from the second. The measure of the mortality of the climate, when deduced partially from the deaths of the Europeans in Batavia or Bombay, is necessarily a false measure; it shows the influence of a change of climate on the mortality of the Europeans, and should be carefully separated from the mortality of the natives; this latter, which averages about 1 in 40, is the true measure of the mortality of the almost equatorial climates of Bombay and Batavia. And this proportion, 1 in 40, is so near the average proportion of the European countries cited, that if the proportion of mortality be, in fact, a measure conversely of the proportion of longevity, the question of the influence of climate on longevity would be nearly decided.

But the proportion of mortality is not a measure in any way of the proportion of longevity.* Mr. Chadwick has shown that "in the returns of the St. George's Hanover Square district, in 1839, the proportion of deaths was 1 to 50 of population; but the average number of years which 1,325 individuals who died in that year had lived, was 31 years." (N. Y. Journal of Medicine, vol. 3, p. 213.)

The following is a table of the population and mortality of the city of Philadelphia, which has been carefully calculated by the writer, allowing an increase of 20 per cent for the 10 years.

| Years. | White Population. | Deaths.† | Proportion. |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1831, | 193,999 | 4,464 | 1 in 43.45 |
| 1832, | 198,453 | 5,933 | 1 in 33.45 |
| 1833, | 203,064 | 3,962 | 1 in 51.02 |
| 1834, | 208,394 | 4,554 | 1 in 45.76 |
| 1835, | 212,585 | 5,098 | 1 in 41.68 |
| 1836, | 218,440 | 4,616 | 1 in 47.32 |
| 1837, | 222,457 | 4,634 | 1 in 48.00 |
| 1838, | 227,682 | 4,813 | 1 in 47.30 |
| 1839, | 232,831 | 4,529 | 1 in 51.40 |
| 1840, | 238,206 | 4,442 | 1 in 53.62 |

* The reason why the proportion of mortality is not a measure of longevity, is the following: The proportion of mortality is a statement of how many persons die in a population; this, of course, does not state the age at which those persons die. If one in 45 die in Sweden, and 1 in 22 in Grenada, the ages of the dead might be alike in both countries; here the greater mortality would actually accompany the greater longevity.

† Copied from the reports of the Board of Health of the city and county of Philadelphia.

Leaving out the year 1832, when cholera prevailed, the mortality in Philadelphia, among its white population, has fluctuated from 1 in 43.45 to 1 in 53.62. Now, it is not possible that the longevity of Philadelphia has fluctuated to the same extent in the same time. Further, the deaths in Philadelphia in 1840 were, as above, 1 in 53.62; the deaths in the city and county of New York, in the same year, were 1 in 40.5.*

By the census of 1840, there were in New York, above 90 years of age, 76 persons, or 1 to 2,107 of population; in Philadelphia, in the same year, there were 133 persons above 90, or 1 to 3,898 of population; in other words, the mortality being as 4.0 to 5.6, the longevity (assuming 90 years as the standard) is 2.1 to 3.9; the mortality in Philadelphia being one-fifth less, whilst the longevity is nearly one-half greater, than that of New York!

The mortality in Belgium, from 1825 to 1829, was 1 in 43.1. (Quetelet on Man, ut supr., p. 26.) The mortality in Massachusetts, in 1844, was, according to Dr. Chickering, 1 in 70. (This statement is copied from the newspapers, as the writer has not had the good fortune to see the report, &c.) M. Quetelet has reduced the population of Belgium to the basis of 10,000—by performing the same process for the population of Massachusetts, I find that there are—

| | Above 90 years. | Above 70 years. |
|---|---|---|
| In Belgium,..... | 5 in 10,000 | 350 in 10,000 |
| Massachusetts,..... | 8 in 10,000 | 290 in 10,000 |

The proportion of mortality in Massachusetts as 70 to 43 in Belgium, yet the longevity at 90 as 8 to 5; and at 70 years of age, (which we will in the sequel adopt as the standard,) the longevity of Belgium actually greater than that of Massachusetts, in the proportion of 3.5 to 2.9!

If the proportion of mortality fails to measure the longevity of a population, how shall we form a standard of longevity?

Presuming the longevity of a people to mean the actual age of that people, the measure of their longevity is the simple statement of their actual age, or the age of the *living* population. Strictly speaking, this actual age of a given population could only be estimated by multiplying each individual by his age, adding all the products together, and then dividing this sum by the number of the individuals. As no census has yet given the separate age of each individual, this process cannot now be performed; but we can get an approximate result sufficiently accurate for our purpose. By an inspection of the table of the census of the United States, which is hereafter given, it will be seen that the proportion of individuals of different ages is a function depending upon the proportion of individuals under 5, and above 70 years of age—therefore, a function of two variables. It will further be seen that these two variables—the proportion under 5, and above 70 years of age—are either of them dependent on and determined by the other; and consequently, if the proportion under 5 years be greater, the proportion above 70 will be less, and *vice versa*.

Hence, it is clear that we may adopt either the proportion of population under 5 years of age, or above 70 years of age, as a standard value for the actual age; that is, the *longevity* of a given population.

We shall adopt the proportion of living persons who have passed 70 years of age as our *standard of longevity*, in any given population.

* Annual Report of the City Inspector of the city of New York, Doc. 47, p. 638.

Having endeavored to fix the meaning of our terms, the next question is, how to form an estimate of the influence of different *climates* on *longevity*.

If a portion of the earth could be found, covered by a moderately dense and evenly spread *acclimated* population—this population living under the same political institutions, engaged in nearly the same proportion in the same pursuits—and yet, in consequence of the extent of their country, this population should be exposed to widely different climates—such a people would furnish data which could decide the question before us.

The United States of North America present the nearest approach to this desirable combination of circumstances. Extending over a surface, the mean annual temperature of which varies from 41° 21′ F. in Maine, to 76° 9′ in Florida; the range of temperature extending from 25° F. in Maine, to 105° F. in East Florida; the mean annual range being 35°, and the extreme 130°; diversified with every variety of geological formation; assaulted with winds from every quarter—the United States present the desirable diversity of climate.

There also exists a sufficient uniformity in the institutions of the several states, so far as the white population is concerned. The difference in the pursuits of the population of different parts of the country is hardly sufficient to prove a prominent disturbing element. The comparative exemption from manual labor enjoyed by the whites in the Southern States, is a compensation for the relative insalubrity of the climate, to the same persons.

The principal disturbing cause, which might invalidate deductions from the census of the United States, is *emigration*. Professor Tucker* estimates the whole number added to the United States by emigration, at 1,044,800. This is about 269,000 too little; for, whilst he adds 20 per cent increase, in each decade of years, to the emigrants furnished by the previous decade, he omits to add the increase of the increased decade to the whole sum. Thus, he says—

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| From 1790 to 1800, number of emigrants,..... | 50,000 | |
| Increase, 20 per cent on 40,000,..... | 8,000 | |
| | | 58,000 |
| From 1800 to 1810, number of emigrants,..... | 70,000 | |
| Increase, 20 per cent on 60,000,..... | 12,000 | |
| | | 82,000 |

and so on. It is clear that the 58,000 and the 82,000 have increased, as well as the 50,000 and the 70,000. Correcting this error, by adding the increase of the increased, the whole number furnished by emigration, from 1790 to 1840, is about 1,271,720.

Although, in a population of 13,000,000, the large number, 1,271,720, irregularly added, would make a disturbing cause difficult to compute, yet it so happens that, in this instance, this added population, by going almost entirely to the new Western States, has left the old states comparatively undisturbed; particularly those which will be selected for comparison.

The rapid increase of population in the United States is another disturbing cause. From 1790 to 1840, according to Tucker—

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| The total increase of the whites has been as..... | | | 100 to 447.3 |
| " " | free col'd, | " ..... | 100 to 649.7 |
| " " | slaves, | " ..... | 100 to 356.4 |
| " " | whole col'd, | " ..... | 100 to 379.4 |

So rapid an increase, in fifty years, of necessity diminishes the relative

* Progress of the United States, pp. 86, 87.

proportion of the longæved. The following table, however, must also be regarded—it is copied from Tucker, p. 58.

TABLE A.

| Divisions. | Increased Population from August 1, 1790, in 10 yrs. | 20 yrs. | 30 yrs. | 40 yrs. | 50 yrs. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. New England States,..... | 122.4 | 145.8 | 164.4 | 193.6 | 221.3 |
| 2. Middle States, with Dist. of Col.,. | 132.6 | 186.3 | 240.2 | 310.4 | 382.7 |
| 3. Southern States, and Florida,..... | 126.6 | 149.1 | 172.9 | 209.1 | 226.1 |
| 4. Southwestern States,..... | 319.8 | 1,058. | 2,264. | 3,839. | 6,174. |
| 5. Northwestern States & Territories, | 371.6 | 857.5 | 1,948. | 3,145. | 5,654. |
| Total of the United States,..... | 135. | 184.2 | 245.3 | 327.4 | 434.5 |

It is evident, from the above table, (Table A.,) that the New England and the Southern States, the extremes in regard to climate, have escaped the disturbing influence of an excessively rapid increase. A somewhat extended analysis of the comparative distribution of the population in each state, in each census, enables the writer to say that emigration has caused but a slight disturbing influence, even in those states in which the largest portion of emigrants has settled.

Another point requires attention—acclimation. Are the various races, the German, Celtic, and Anglo-Saxon, who compose the bulk of the white population of the United States, sufficiently acclimated to render the data furnished by the census free from the error which *change of climate* might create? Although it be impossible to say what length of time is necessary to wear out this error—to make a race *native*—yet, when we find, as in New Hampshire and Connecticut, that the distribution of population is precisely similar to the average distributions of population in the kingdoms of Europe, it is fair inference that the change of climate has ceased to be a disturbing cause.

From these views, it appears that the United States, by means of their census, offer a good case for the study of the influence of *climate on longevity.*

Before we enter upon an investigation of the census of the United States, we would call attention to the following table, which is slightly altered from the table given by Quetelet (on Man, p. 56.) The alteration has been made by the addition of the numbers above 5 years, so as to show—1st. The proportion in 10,000 under 5 years; 2d. The proportion above 5 years; 3d. The proportion above 10 years, &c., &c.

TABLE B.

| Ages. | G. Brit. 1821. Marsh'l. | Ireland. 1821. Marsh'l. | Engl'nd. 1821. Marsh'l. | Engl'd.* 1813-30. Rickman. | France. bef. 1789. Annuaire. | Belgium. 1829. Annuaire. | Sweden. 1820. Marsh'l. | U. S. 1830. Marsh'l. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Below 5 y., | 1,647.0 | 1,535.0 | 1,472.0 | 1,487.0 | 1,201.0 | 1,297.0 | 1,307.0 | 1,800.0 |
| Above 5, | 8,353.5 | 8,468.5 | 8,526.8 | 8,513.2 | 8,799.0 | 8,703.0 | 8,686.0 | 8,198.2 |
| " 10, | 6,977.5 | 7,113.5 | 7,226.8 | 7,206.2 | 7,818.0 | 7,614.0 | 7,676.0 | 6,743.2 |
| " 15, | 5,758.5 | 5,895.5 | 6,107.8 | 6,092.2 | 6,879.0 | 6,668.0 | 6,782.0 | 5,500.2 |
| " 20, | 4,712.5 | 4,676.5 | 5,107.8 | 5,100.2 | 5,982.0 | 5,785.0 | 5,883.0 | 4,388.2 |
| " 30, | 3,154.5 | 2,916.5 | 3,524.8 | 3,526.2 | 4,344.0 | 4,105.0 | 4,172.0 | 2,607.2 |
| " 40, | 1,974.5 | 1,766.5 | 2,348.8 | 2,345.2 | 2,940.0 | 2,764.0 | 2,810.0 | 1,516.2 |
| " 50, | 1,096.5 | 995.5 | 1,417.8 | 1,411.2 | 1,779.0 | 1,747.0 | 1,723.0 | 828.2 |
| " 60, | 551.5 | 395.5 | 754.8 | 752.2 | 887.0 | 954.0 | 868.0 | 398.2 |
| " 70, | 203.5 | 122.5 | 294.8 | 296.2 | 310.0 | 350.0 | 282.0 | 145.2 |
| " 80, | 40.5 | 26.5 | 67.8 | 68.2 | 55.0 | 71.0 | 42.0 | 35.2 |
| " 90, | 3.5 | 3.5 | 5.8 | 5.2 | 5.0 | 5.0 | 1.0 | 4.2 |
| " 100, | .1 | .5 | .3 | .2 | .2 | .1 | .0 | .2 |

* And part of Wales.

By inspection, we see, in the above table, the number of individuals in 10,000, who have passed any age above 5 years, in either of the countries named. It is remarkable, as we have already stated, that the longevity of either population—or, in other words, the age of the living population—is generally determined by the proportion under 5 years of age. The greater the number under 5 years, the fewer the number above 70 years. The United States, with 1,800 in 10,000 under 5 years, has only 145.2 above 70; Belgium, with 1,297 under 5, has 350 above 70. It will be seen that the same remark is partly true if we extend the comparison from 5 to 80 years, but it does not hold good if we go as far as 90 years. If we compare the ages intermediate between 5 and 70 years, the rule we have named holds good. Hence, as 70 years is the age—the extreme age—to which a sufficient portion of persons (in any given population) live, to affect the longevity of the whole mass in a constant manner, it appears to be, on that account, an excellent standard of longevity. Should we adopt 80 or 90 years, too few persons constantly reach these ages, to indicate the longevity of the mass. May not this be considered a beautiful proof of the accuracy of holy writ, when it declares that "*the days of our years are three-score years and ten;* and if, by reason of strength, they be four-score years, yet is their strength labor and sorrow; *for it is soon cut off, and we fly away.*"

If we adopt the proportion who are above 70 years, as the standard of longevity, it would appear that the longevity of Belgium is the greatest, and of Ireland the least, in the countries named in Table B.

| | |
|---|---|
| In Belgium there are, above 70 years,..... | 350. |
| In Ireland,..... | 122.5 |
| Difference,..... | 127.5 |

Let us now compare the climates of Belgium and Ireland. The statement is taken from an excellent table in the London edition of Kaemtz's Meteorology, p. 177, et seq.

| Place. | Latitude. | Mean annual. | TEMPERATURE. Spring. | Summer. | Autumn. | Winter. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Ireland—Dublin,..... | 53° 23′ N. | 49° 10′ F. | 47° 12′ | 59° 54′ | 50° 04′ | 40° 28′ |
| Munster,..... | 51° 58′ N. | 49° 10′ F. | 48° 06′ | 62° 24′ | 50° 18′ | 36° 36′ |
| Belgium—Brussels,..... | 50° 51′ N. | 50° 36′ F. | 50° 18′ | 65° 16′ | 50° 36′ | 36° 50′ |

Ireland and Belgium have a temperature almost identical. From their latitude, they are within the same Isobarometrical curve—that is to say, the monthly oscillations of the barometer have the same mean, 27,07 m.m. in both countries, (Kaemtz, p. 299.) They are also within the same hyetographic region, (Kaemtz, p. 137.) They are both composed of primary and secondary formations, and are diversified by hill and dale, (Lyell.)

We cannot, therefore, attribute the wide difference in the longevity of these two countries to a difference of *climate.* The cause of the difference in longevity is readily traced to the difference in the habits, or mode of living, which obtain in Ireland and Belgium. The most prominent of these differences is, that in Ireland, early marriages (which are most productive of increase) are frequent. In Belgium, "the greatest number of marriages, both of men and women, take place between their twenty-sixth and thirtieth years," (Quetelet on Man, p. 16.) M. Quetelet also shows that the children of early marriages are feebler, and less likely to reach a medium age, than the children of parents of riper years. This fact will explain the apparent anomaly that in Ireland the proportion under 5, and

over 70, do not bear the constant ratio for which we have claimed the name of a rule.

By reference to the table, (Table B.,) it will be seen that the longevity of Sweden is, to that of Belgium, as 282 to 350.

In regard to the *temperature* of Belgium and Sweden, we can furnish only the records kept at Brussels for the former, and at Stockholm, Umea, and Upsal, for the latter.

| Place. | Latitude. | Annual. | Spring. | Summer. | Autumn. | Winter. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Brussels,..... | 50° 51′ N. | 50° 36 | 50° 18 | 64° 76 | 50° 36 | 36° 50 |
| Stockholm,..... | 59° 21′ | 42° 08 | 38° 30 | 60° 98 | 43° 70 | 25° 52 |
| Umea,..... | 63° 50′ | 35° 78 | 33° 08 | 57° 38 | 37° 58 | 13° 64 |
| Upsal,..... | 59° 52′ | 41° 36 | 38° 12 | 59° 18 | 43° 16 | 25° 34 |
| Mean of Belg.,.... | 50° 51′ | 50° 36 | 50° 18 | 64° 76 | 50° 36 | 36° 50 |
| " Swe.,.... | 60° 00′ | 39° 74 | 36° 50 | 59° 18 | 41° 38 | 21° 50 |
| Difference,..... | 9° 09′ | 10° 62 | 13° 68 | 5° 58 | 8° 98 | 15° 00 |

| Place. | Hottest month. | Coldest month. | Range. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Umea,..... | 61° 16 July. | 11° 66 Jan. | ..... |
| Upsal,..... | 61° 34 | 23° 18 | ..... |
| Stockholm,..... | 63° 68 | 23° 90 | ..... |
| Mean of Belgium,..... | 65° 84 | 34° 16 | 30° 68 |
| " Sweden,..... | 62° 06 | 19° 58 | 42° 48 |
| Difference,..... | 3° 08 | 14° 58 | 10° 80 |

It is evident that the greatest difference between the temperature of Belgium and Sweden occurs in the winter; Sweden being 14° 58 colder than Belgium during the coldest month. It is also clear, from the difference of latitude, that the Swedes are exposed to a longer, as well as a colder winter, than the Belgians.

The mean amplitude of the oscillations of the barometer in Stockholm, during the year, is 29,87$^{m.m.}$; in Belgium,* 25,65$^{m.m.}$; which is copied from Kaemtz, p. 297.

Kaemtz places Belgium and Sweden in different hyetographic regions, principally because in Belgium the *Southwest*, but in Sweden the *East* wind, brings rain with greatest frequency.

Belgium and Sweden are principally composed of secondary formation, according to Lyell, who regards Belgium as having been submerged, and Sweden as in a state of upheaval.

In regard to the institutions of these countries, we will quote Alison's Principles of Population, Vol. I.

"The free spirit and mild government of the old Burgundian provinces, have produced their usual effect upon the character of the people, and the principle of population; while the increase of the people has been restrained within the bounds which the circumstances of society require. In every part of Flanders, the rural scene presents the most agreeable objects; fields covered by fruitful crops, meadows feeding numerous herds, neat and commodious farm-houses.

"The bounty of nature is diffused in decent competence through the multitude that inhabits it; and the wholesome fare and neat dwellings of the laborer, attest that he receives his share of the riches with which nature crowns his fields." P. 423.

* Brussels.

"The condition of the people in the Scandinavian Peninsula, is in the highest degree prosperous and happy.

"If you enter a Swedish cottage, it is with pleasure," says Catteau, "that you see the person that inhabits it. His food is simple, but substantial; his clothes, though coarse, are warm, and in good order; his dwelling, though rude, is clean and comfortable. Even in the remotest parts of the country, the symptoms of general comfort are to be found." P. 428.

From the same author, and Quetelet, we gather that marriages are 1 to every 144, in Belgium; and 1 to every 110, in Sweden. Births are 1 to every 27, in Sweden; and 1 to every 30 inhabitants, in Belgium. The deaths, in Belgium, in 1829–30–31, were 1 to every 43 inhabitants; in Sweden, from 1754 to 1768, there was 1 death to every 34; from 1821 to 1825, only 1 in 45.

The population of Belgium, is stated by Alison to be 507 to the square mile; of Sweden, only 14 to the square mile. The latter statement is not strictly true; because three-fourths of the Swedes, according to Malte Brun, dwell in Goetland, which is only one-third of the entire territory.

From this careful comparison of the two kingdoms, it appears that the institutions, and the modes of living, are nearly identical in both. The only marked difference between them, is a difference of climate. Sweden is 10° 62 colder the year round; and 14° 58 colder in the coldest month, than Belgium. Even the summer heat in Sweden is lower in temperature than in Flanders.

It appears, also, that the rain-bearing winds come from different directions; in Belgium, the balmy south wind, tempered by the ocean; in Sweden, the chilling and unhealthy east wind, comes freighted with rain and moisture.

Since this difference in climate is almost the only difference in the circumstances affecting life, which we find between Sweden and Belgium, it is a fair inference that the difference in longevity arises from the same cause.

A difference of 10° 62, or a climate 10° 62 colder, has made the longevity of Sweden, $\frac{66}{1000}$ less than the longevity of Belgium. That is, $\frac{111}{1000} - \frac{111}{1000} = \frac{66}{1000}$.

This view, that an extremely cold climate is unfavorable to longevity, receives some confirmation from the following table, which we copy from Quetelet's "*Recherches sur la Reproduction et la Mortalité de l'homme aux différens ages, et sur la population de la Belgique.*"

He gives the table "in order that we may ascertain at what ages extreme heat or extreme cold is most to be feared"—(p. 75.)

| Ages. | DEATHS DURING MONTHS OF January. | July. | D'ths in July for 100 d'ths in Jan. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Still-born,..... | 269 | 215 | 0,80 |
| First month after birth,..... | 3,321 | 1,719 | 0,52 |
| 4 to 6 years,..... | 878 | 600 | 0,69 |
| 8 to 12 " ..... | 616 | 447 | 0,73 |
| 12 to 16 " ..... | 409 | 420 | 1,05 |
| 16 to 20 " ..... | 502 | 545 | 1,09 |
| 20 to 25 " ..... | 361 | 796 | 0,93 |
| 25 to 30 " ..... | 793 | 724 | 0,92 |
| 40 to 45 " ..... | 818 | 613 | 0,75 |
| 62 to 65 " ..... | 968 | 525 | 0,54 |
| 79 to 81 " ..... | 658 | 332 | 0,51 |
| 90 and upwards,..... | 252 | 99 | 0,39 |

"It results from these numbers that the influence of the seasons is extremely pronounced (*extremement prononcée*) according to the different ages. The still-births in January and July, are in the ratio of 4 to 5. But it is at the moment that the infant commences to see the light, that the influence of the seasons makes itself vividly distinct; so that, for two children who die in January, only one dies in July. This mortality, so great in winter, diminishes, so as to become almost indistinct, at the 12th year. After that age, and about puberty, and the following years, the vital heat develops itself so abundantly, that it is only the heat of summer against which the young man should provide (*redouter.*) About the epoch of marriage, (26 to 30 years,) and during reproduction, the influence of the seasons is almost null. Winter again commences its direful influence about the 40th year; and its effects are so sensible, that after the age of 65 years, the cold is as much to be feared by the aged, as by the newly born; it has the same disastrous effect after 90 years, when two or three aged persons die in January for only one in July"—(p. 76.) "The numbers in the last column may be regarded as an expression of the amount of vital heat which man possesses, at different ages"—(p. 76.)

These remarks of Quetelet, are beautifully illustrated by comparing the populations of Sweden and Belgium in Table B. From the 10th to the 40th year the Swedes are most numerous; after the 40th year, the Belgians take the lead.

The winter of Belgium is but 36° 50';* and if Quetelet's views are correct, it would follow, from apparently fixed laws of the human frame, that towards 60 to 65 years, as a general rule, it is not capable of resisting the long duration of cold, common to hyperborean winters. The famed, we had almost said the fabled, longevity of individuals among the Russians, makes no exception to this law.

The absolute condition of the mass of the Russians, is slavery—in all times, and in all places, a condition of depression, and therefore productive of centenarians:—Add the additional depression of rigor of climate, and difficulty of intercommunication,† and we have the circumstances most likely to produce centenarians, at the expense of the length of the life of the masses. What with the hunger, the slavery and the cold, the wonder is—not that individual cases of extreme old age should occur, but that these ancient Russ, once seasoned, should ever die!

Whether we look at the result of carefully compared statistics, or whether we look at the vital forces of the human frame, we have abundant evidence that climates of a persistent low temperature—the long duration of cold—unquestionably diminish the longevity of mankind. The aged frame, no longer developing a sufficient supply of vital heat, and unable to support the rapid combustion, is literally "consumed, and flies away!"

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* When not otherwise marked, the degrees of heat are according to Fahrenheit.

† Dr. Baird, in his lecture on Russia, stated that the inhabitants of whole provinces sometimes perish, in winter, because the state of the roads makes it impossible to convey provisions to them.

## Art. III.—COUNTERFEITING MARKS AND NAMES ON MERCHANDISE.

### ON THE COUNTERFEITING OF THE MARKS AND NAMES OF TRADESMEN UPON GOODS, AND THE SELLING THEM AS GENUINE.

FOREIGN merchants have set the blameable example of making up, or causing to be made up, for the American market, large quantities of goods which bear counterfeit marks and names; and our manufacturers are profiting by it, and taking a similar course.

The consequences, and probable result of such forgery—for forgery, in a very mean shape, it is—can hardly have occurred to those who are guilty. He who counterfeits my name to a note, may make one innocent man suffer; but he who truly, in this sense, robs me of my good name, injures all to whom he sells; he may ruin me, while he certainly lays himself open to be looked at as a forger without imprisonment, and a liar among his debtors.

And yet, although the law may not give him the jail, it will stop him peremptorily; it will leave *its* "mark" upon his character, and give me damages, and all the profit which he, by the use of my honest name and fame, and his bad goods, has obtained from confiding buyers. He shall not, as the courts have said, trade under another man's flag.

An exposition of the principles which the courts of law and equity have laid down on the subject, cannot but be interesting to the merchant.

The earliest case in the English books, is one that was decided in the time of Elizabeth,* and is thus reported: "An action upon the case was brought in the Common Pleas by a clothier; that, whereas he had gained great reputation for his making of his cloth, by reason whereof he had great utterance, to his great benefit and profit; and that he used to set his mark to his cloth, whereby it should be known to be his cloth; and another clothier foreseeing it, used the same mark to his ill-made cloth, on purpose to deceive him; and it was resolved that the action did lie."

It is not the mere making and using of a sign or mark, similar to the mark or sign of another, that is legally objectionable; for, as it has been said by Chancellor Walworth, there is no patent right in names;† while the English Judge Cresswell has observed, that the mere use of a similar mark will give no right of action—that a man can have no abstract right to use a particular mark.‡

The wrong, as was observed by Lord Hardwicke, as far back as the year 1742, consists in the making or doing the act with *a fraudulent design to put off bad goods, or draw away customers.*§

We now proceed to give an exposition of the different cases:

### I. A COURT OF CHANCERY WILL INTERFERE, EVEN WHEN THE MARKS OR NAMES ARE NOT PRECISELY SIMILAR, PROVIDED THEY ARE MADE IN SUCH A MANNER AS TO FORM OR BE A COLORABLE IMITATION.

The strongest case to show this, is one relating to the running of omnibuses in London.‖ An association of persons had started omnibuses to run from Paddington to the Bank of England, having on them the words,

* Southern *v.* How, Popham's Reports, 144.
† Bell *v.* Locke, 8 Paige's C. R., 75.
‡ Crawshay *v.* Thompson, 4 Manning and Granger, 386.
§ Blanchard *v.* Hill, 2 Atk., 584.
‖ Knott *v.* Morgan, 2 Keen's R., 213.

*Conveyance Company*, and *London Conveyance Company*. There was also a Star and Garter painted; and the conductors and coachmen were dressed in green livery and gold hat-bands.

The defendant afterwards started omnibuses exactly similar; and the dress of coachmen and conductors was the same. He was then threatened by the complainants, whereupon the defendant obliterated from the back of his omnibus the word "*Company*," and painted on each side of it, over the words "*Conveyance Company*," the word *Original*; and between the words "*Conveyance*" and "*Company*" the word *for*, in very small characters; so that there was then painted on the back of the defendant's omnibuses the words *London Conveyance*, and on each side, the words *Original Conveyance for Company*. But no further alteration was made; and the livery or dress remained the same. The Master of the Rolls, Lord Langdale, said the question was, whether the defendant fraudulently imitated the title and insignia used by the complainants for the purpose of injuring them in their trade? "I have not the least doubt," said his Honor, "that the defendant did intend to induce the public to believe that the omnibuses which he painted and appointed so as to resemble the carriages of the complainants, was, in fact, an omnibus belonging to the complainants and the other proprietors of the London Conveyance Company. It is not to be said that the complainants have any exclusive right to the words "Conveyance Company," or "London Conveyance Company," or any other words, but they have a right to call upon this court to restrain the defendant from fraudulently using precisely the same words and devices which they have taken for the purpose of distinguishing their property, and thereby depriving them of the fair profits of their business, by attracting custom on the false representation that carriages originally the defendant's, belonged to, and were under the management of the complainants."

Perhaps this language is not so clear as the circumstances required, because the opinion would seem to go upon the idea that there were "precisely" the same words; however, the order which Lord Langdale made is quite consistent with the facts. His Lordship ordered an injunction to issue, restraining the defendant from using the words or names "London Conveyance," or "Original Conveyance for Company;" or any other names, words, or devices painted, stamped, printed or written, etc., *in such manner as to form or be a colorable imitation* of the names, words, and devices painted on the omnibuses of the complainants.

We now go to a case where Messrs. Day & Martin were manufacturers of blacking, as was a person named Binning. The latter sold his blacking in bottles, which not only resembled the bottles used by Day & Martin, but were labelled in a similar manner. The only difference between the two labels was, that the label of Day & Martin described their blacking as "manufactured" by Day & Martin, whilst that of Binning's described his blacking as "equal to Day & Martin's." The words "*equal to*," were printed in a very small type.

An injunction was granted *ex parte*, to restrain Binning from using any labels in imitation of those of Day & Martin.*

It is, however, to be observed, that where there is no patent, there is nothing to stop a manufacturer from putting forth openly and plainly that he makes a similar article, and that it is equal to one made by another. The intention is everything.

* Day v. Binning, 1 C. C. Cooper's Rep., 489.

II. WHILE A PERSON SHALL NOT MAKE AN ARTICLE AS AND FOR THE ARTICLE DEALT IN AND MADE BY ANOTHER, YET HE CANNOT BE STOPPED (WHERE THERE IS NO PATENT) FROM MAKING AND SELLING A SIMILAR THING, WHERE HE OPENLY SHOWS THAT IT IS HIS OWN.

The cases in the courts where a party is enjoined, show that it is only where a fraud is intended by the palming off or aiding in the palming off of a counterfeit article as and for the thing of another, that the courts interfere.

Thus, we have a case in the books,* which, as to the principle involved, will apply to trade-marks, although it immediately related to the sale of a medicine well known as Velno's Vegetable Syrup. A man by the name of Jones, who had been a servant with a former maker of it, (Mr. Swainson,) made a similar composition, or something like it; but in his advertisement, he certified that the medicine *prepared by him at his residence*, under the name of Velno's Vegetable Syrup, was precisely the same with that made and sold by the late Mr. Swainson.

The court considered that Jones merely attempted to show that he sold, not another person's medicine, but one of as good a quality.

III. A PERSON MAY BEAR THE SAME NAME AS THE MAKER OF AN ARTICLE, YET HE HAS NO RIGHT TO MAKE HIS GOODS AS AND FOR THE GOODS OF ANOTHER.

This was decided in a case where Mr. Sykes had made and sold shot-belts, powder-flasks, etc., which he was accustomed to mark with the words "Sykes's patent," although there was no patent attached to the articles.†

It was contended by a defendant, that, as his name also was Sykes, therefore he had a right to mark his goods with that name; and had also as much right to add the word "patent," as the plaintiff; but the court would not give in to this, and laid down the above principle.

IV. ALTHOUGH A PERSON MAY NOT HAVE AN EXCLUSIVE RIGHT TO A PARTICULAR MARK, YET ANOTHER SHALL NOT USE IT SO AS TO DECEIVE OR MISLEAD.

Thus, in a suit in England,‡ that embraced the manufacture of case-hardened ploughshares, Messrs. Ransome had been in the habit of not only using their name upon their articles, but also marked upon them the letters H. H., to denote the shares being case-hardened, and also with certain numbers, as No. 6, to denote their size. Aside from the matter of the name or style, the defendant, a Mr. Bentall, claimed the right of using the letters and figure H. H. 6.

The Vice Chancellor, Sir Lancelot Shadwell, said: "The defendant is in fact asking me to sanction the commission of a fraud. If he had been in the habit of marking his ploughs only with H. H. 6, and *if I could see the marks so placed that no person could be deceived in purchasing the ploughs*, then I might refuse the injunction as to that part of the ploughs.

* Canham v. Jones, 2 Vess. B., 218. In this case, as the foundation for the suit was the exclusive right asserted by the plaintiff, and he failed there, the consequential relief failed with it. However, as it appeared that Jones was in the habit of using verbally the plaintiff's name in various ways, in order to recommend and promote the sale of the medicine, it is believed that a bill, rightly framed, would have held to restrain his making use of the plaintiff's name and the simulated article for such a purpose.

† Sykes v. Sykes, 3 Barnwell & Cresswell's Rep., 541. S. C. Dowling & Ryland, 292.

‡ Ransome v. Bentall, Law Journal Reports (new series) vol. 3, p. 161.

But here the defendant wants me to decide, *ab ante, that no possible use of H. H.* 6, *may not have the effect of misleading persons.*"

The court allowed an injunction, restraining not only the use of the particular style, letters and figures, but also "any words, letters and figures, which purported to represent that they were used by the complainants, etc."

In connection, we may add, that it has been decided,* that a *watchmaker, having long used a Turkish word, in Turkish characters,* engraved upon watches made by him for the foreign market, where they were in high estimation, and had great sale, *had an exclusive right to the use of the distinguishing marks.* It appeared that a Mr. Gout had long manufactured watches for the markets of Constantinople and other places in the Levant; and his watches had acquired great repute there, and a ready sale. They were distinguished from all others, not only by the names, but also by the word *cesendede,* (warranted,) impressed upon each in Turkish characters. Messrs. Parkinson and Frodsham had manufactured, and were exporting, together with two other persons, who gave them the order, a number of watches, with that distinguishing word upon them, and made also, in other respects, to resemble and pass for Mr. Gout's watches. Messrs. Parkinson and Frodsham tried to excuse themselves by showing that they were not aware that they had been counterfeiting Mr. Gout's watches; that they had been ordered to make a quantity of watches for export, and to impress on them the Turkish characters already mentioned. They, however, insisted that there was no law to prevent them from affixing the word "warranted" in Turkish, to their own watches, or limit the exclusive use of it to Mr. Gout.

The Vice Chancellor, before whom the matter was urged, decided, that Mr. Gout, under the circumstances, had acquired, by long previous usage, the exclusive right to designate his watches by this Turkish word, in Turkish characters; and that the object of affixing the same mark to the watches manufactured by the other parties was, no doubt, to make them pass for Mr. Gout's, the sale of which could not but be thereby injured.

V. WHERE A TRADE-MARK BELONGS TO A PARTNERSHIP, IT WILL, ON THE DEATH OF ONE PARTNER, SURVIVE TO THE REMAINING PARTNER, AND IS NOT TO BE USED BY THE NEXT OF KIN OF THE FORMER.

This came up in a proceeding in the English Court of Chancery relating to the well known pencils of Brookman and Langdon.† The original right had been in Messrs. Brookman and Langdon; and the right to use the style of the firm passing by agreement to the widow of Langdon, after his death, she carried on the business in copartnership with James Lewis, under the same style. It was decided that, on her death, the right to use the style of the firm passed by survivorship to the surviving partner Lewis, and not to the next of kin of the original manufacturer; and therefore, Lewis, continuing after Mrs. Langdon's death to carry on the business under the style of "Lewis & Co., successors to Brookman and Langdon," was held entitled to an injunction to restrain one A. Langdon, who claimed to be the next of kin of Langdon, the original pencil maker, from carrying on the business of pencil making, under the style of "Brookman and Langdon."

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* Gout v. Parkinson and others, 5 London Legal Observer, (1833,) p. 495.

† Lewis v. Langdon, 7 Sim. 421.

VI. A COURT OF CHANCERY WILL NOT PROTECT A TRADESMAN IN A MARK, WHO DOES NOT COME BEFORE THE COURT ON A CASE FOUNDED IN TRUTH.

This was decided where a person of the name of Pidding attempted to restrain one How from selling a certain mixed tea. In 1832, Pidding, the plaintiff, began to sell, in London, a mixed tea, composed of many different sorts of black tea, under the name of *Howqua's* mixture, in packages weighing a catty each, and having Chinese characters and the figures of a male and female Chinese on three of the sides, and a printed label, containing the words "*Howqua's* Mixture," and some other particulars relating to the tea, on the fourth side. How, the defendant, sold tea under the same name, and in packages with labels resembling those used by the plaintiff.

The case made by the plaintiff was, that the mixture in question was originally made by one of the Hong merchants at Canton, named Howqua, for his own private use; that the plaintiff, when he was at Canton, had been intimate with Howqua, and had frequently drunk tea made from the mixture, at his house; that, having ascertained the particular kind of tea which gave to the mixture its peculiar flavor, he, in 1832, purchased from Howqua, and brought to England, a large quantity of that tea, and also of other black teas, and made a mixture of them similar to that used by Howqua, and that he had continued to sell large quantities of it under the name and in the packages before mentioned.

The plaintiff, in his labels and advertisements, intimated that the mixture was *made by Howqua in Canton*, and was purchased from *him*, and imported into this country by the plaintiff, in the packages in which it was sold; that the tea, which gave it its peculiar flavor, was very rare and high-priced even in China, and was grown in only one province of that country, named Kyiang Nan; and that it could not be procured in England at any price.

The affidavits on the defendant's behalf were made by persons, some of whom had been acquainted with Howqua. They stated that the mixed tea sold by the plaintiff as Howqua's mixture, was *neither made nor used by Howqua*; that it was composed of scented orange pekoe, (which gave it its peculiar flavor,) and of other black teas of the ordinary kinds; that orange pekoe was not considered in China to be one of the best teas; and that that sort of tea had been imported into and sold in England previously to 1832, and had been since, generally, imported and sold by persons engaged in the tea trade; that no black tea, but only green tea, was produced in the province of Kyiang Nan; that the plaintiff did *not* purchase the teas from which the mixture was made, from Howqua, or import them from China, but that he purchased them *in England*, and that the packages in which the mixture was sold, were made, not in China, but *in England*.

The Vice Chancellor, before whom the above cause was tried, gave the following opinion:

"The view that I have taken of this case is this. The plaintiff having acquired, either by some communication from Howqua, or in some other manner, the method of compounding a mixed tea, which has been so agreeable to the public as to induce them to purchase it, began, some years ago, to sell it under the name of Howqua's mixture; and the defendant, finding that the plaintiff's mixture was in considerable demand, has recently be-

gun to sell a mixture of his own, which I take to be different from the plaintiff's, under the same designation. I apprehend that, *prima facie*, the defendant was not at liberty to do that. There has been, however, such a degree of representation, which I take to be false, held out to the public about the mode of procuring and making up the plaintiff's mixture, that, in my opinion, a Court of Equity ought not to interfere to protect the plaintiff, until he has established his title at law. As between the plaintiff and the defendant, the course pursued by the defendant has not been a proper one; but it is a clear rule, laid down by Courts of Equity, not to extend their protection to persons whose case is not founded in truth. And as the plaintiff in this case has thought fit to mix up that which may be true with that which is false, in introducing his tea to the public, my opinion is, that, unless he establish his title at law, the court cannot interfere on his behalf.

"What, therefore, I intend to do, is to dissolve the injunction, and to give the plaintiff liberty to bring such action as he may be advised. Let there be liberty to both parties to apply, and reserve the consideration of costs."

VII. A PERSON WHO HIRES A MANUFACTORY WHERE A PARTICULAR MARK HAS BEEN USED ON ARTICLES MADE THERE, AND WHO CONTINUES ITS USE, CANNOT, ON LEAVING AND SETTING UP ANOTHER FACTORY, HAVE AN EXCLUSIVE RIGHT TO CONTINUE SUCH MARK, EVEN THOUGH THE OLD PREMISES MAY, FOR A TIME, HAVE BEEN UNTENANTED.*

How far the owner of such old premises could restrain an outgoing tenant from continuing the use of such mark, has never been decided.

It seems unequitable that such a departing tenant should be able to do so, for the mark attached its value to the premises; and "no doubt," (as was remarked by the Court of Chancery, in the case from which we have drawn the above principle,) "when the owner came to dispose of the works again, the circumstance of the reputation which the manufacture of the works had acquired, would enable him to dispose of them on more advantageous terms."

VIII. A MAN WHO MAKES OR SELLS A SPURIOUS ARTICLE, WILL NOT BE PROTECTED, SIMPLY BECAUSE THOSE WHO DEAL WITH HIM KNOW BY WHOM IT IS MANUFACTURED.†

If this were allowed, it would give a power to a buyer and to retailers to sell the thing *ad infinitum*, as and for the article of the original maker.

This was well put by Assistant Vice Chancellor Sandford of the first Circuit of New York, in a case in which the author of this article acted as counsel.‡ It related to an imitation of J. & P. Coats's spool cotton thread. The defendants, among other things, attempted to excuse themselves on the ground that they explained the article to buyers. The court said: "But it is said, that upon their sale to the jobber, by whom it was again sold to the retailers, the defendants told the jobber truly, that it was an imitation of Coats's thread; in short, that they sold it as a spurious article. But what then? Did they imagine that the jobber would be equally frank and communicative to the retail merchants and shop-keep-

* Motley *v.* Downman, 3 Mylne & Craig's R.

† Sykes *v.* Sykes, 2 Barnwell & Cresswell's Rep., 541. S. C. 5 Dowling & Ryland, 292.

‡ Coats *v.* Holbrook and others, M. S.

ers, and that every one of the latter would carefully inform every person that bought a spool, that the thread was an imitation of Coats's, made in New Jersey, and only three cord, instead of six? The idea is preposterous. Trade-marks, names, labels, etc., are not forged, counterfeited or imitated with any such honest design or expectation. McGregor's thread was labelled and stamped with Coats's name and mark, so that it might be palmed off upon the consumer as being made by Coats; and every man who sold it, whether he made five per cent or fifty per cent, by the operation, lent himself to the perpetration of the fraud."

IX. ALTHOUGH A MANUFACTURER ADOPTS AN OLD MARK OR NAME IN THE HONEST BELIEF THAT IT DESIGNATES ONLY THE PARTICULAR MATERIAL OR SPECIES OF THING ON WHICH IT IS PLACED, AND USES IT IN IGNORANCE OF ITS BEING ANY THING MORE THAN A TECHNICAL TERM, YET THE COURT WILL ENJOIN HIM, PROVIDED IT BE THE TRADE-MARK OF ANOTHER.

This principle came out in a suit in the English chancery, connected with what is known in the market by the name of *Crowley* Steel and *Crowley, Millington*, Steel.* It appeared that the business carried on by Messrs. Millington was originally founded at the end of the seventeenth century, or in the early part of the eighteenth century, by a person of the name of *Crowley*, who invented or introduced a particular mode of manufacturing steel, which had ever since been followed by the Messrs. Millington, and those whom they succeeded in business. The words forming the mark were "Crowley," and "Crowley, Millington," with "I. H.," being the initials of the name of John Heppel, the principal workman in the plaintiff's employ. The defendants were Messrs. Fox, Brothers. They very clearly showed to the court that they had used the marks in ignorance of their being trade-marks, and pointed out how they supposed them to be technical terms:—that, by the term "*Crowley*" Steel, the defendants always understood tilted, rolled, or single shear or sheared steel, made up in a bundle of one hundred weight, and manufactured from a bar of steel, and by the term "*Crowley Millington*" steel, shear or sheared steel, made up in bundles of one hundred weight, and manufactured from several bars. And also they did not know that the letters "*I. H.*" had any other signification than as being one of the ordinary marks used among steel manufacturers throughout the kingdom for a long course of years.

When the case first came before the court, the Lord Chancellor expressed an opinion that the plaintiffs had made out a case which entitled them to an injunction; and afterwards his honor observed: "I see no reason to believe that there has, in this case, been a fraudulent use of the plaintiffs' marks. It is positively denied by the answer; and there is no evidence to show that the defendants were even aware of the existence of the plaintiffs as a company manufacturing steel; for, although there is no evidence to show that the terms '*Crowley*' and '*Crowley Millington*' were merely technical terms, yet there is sufficient to show that they were very generally used, in conversation at least, as descriptive of particular qualities of steel. In short, it does not appear to me that there was any fraudulent intention in the use of the marks. That circumstance, however, does not deprive the plaintiffs of their right to the exclusive use of those names," &c.

* Millington v. Fox, 3 Mylne and Craig, 338.

X. WHERE A MANUFACTURER EXECUTES ORDERS RECEIVED FROM A FOREIGN CORRESPONDENT, IN THE ORDINARY COURSE OF HIS BUSINESS, AND WITHOUT A KNOWLEDGE THAT THE MARKS WHICH HE IS INDUCED TO USE ARE THE TRADE-MARKS OF ANOTHER, NO LIABILITY, BY WAY OF DAMAGES, WILL ATTACH TO HIM.

William Crawshay was an iron manufacturer in South Wales; and William Thompson and others were also manufacturers in the neighborhood. It is the custom in the iron trade for the different iron masters to mark the iron made by them with a peculiar mark of their own. Since the peace in Europe of 1815, a large trade for iron had grown up between this country and Turkey and Greece, (which had previously been supplied by Russia,) and Crawshay's iron, marked (W. C.,) was in great estimation in the Turkish market, where the mark in question was generally known as "the comb mark." It appeared to be the custom for several merchants to order iron from different English manufacturers, stamped with particular marks, differing from their own private marks. In the year 1837, the defendants received from a Mr. Kerr, a Turkish merchant in London, an order for a quantity of iron to be shipped by a certain vessel, and such iron was directed to be stamped W., with a little o in an oval ($\overline{W^{o}}$). This order was executed; but the stamp was made W. with a dot in an oval ($\overline{W^{\cdot}}$). Mr. Crawshay happening to be there at the time, saw some of the iron so marked, and remonstrated with the defendants' manager on the alleged similarity of the mark to his own. No further notice was taken at that time; and the defendants, in execution of other orders, continued to supply iron stamped with the foregoing letters, which were afterwards varied according to orders, to W. with a large O.

The Chief Justice who tried the cause left it to the jury to say: first, whether they were satisfied that the defendants' mark bore such a close resemblance to Crawshay's as, in its own nature, was calculated to deceive the unwary or persons who were moderately skilled in the article, and to injure the sale of Crawshay's goods; and, secondly, what was the intention of the defendants in using the mark complained of—whether it was for the purpose of supplanting Crawshay, or done in the usual course of trade, and in execution of foreign orders sent to their house; because, the judge said, it seemed to him, that, *unless there were such a fraudulent intention existing, (at least before notice,) and it were proved to the satisfaction of the jury, the defendants would not be liable.* In this particular case the jury found for the defendants.*

It may, however, be observed, that although in a similar case no *damages* might be had, or even a verdict at *law* be obtained in favor of a plaintiff, yet an injunction in chancery to restrain the use of an established mark would hold.

XI. A MANUFACTURER CAN, NEVERTHELESS, BE RESTRAINED BY INJUNCTION IN THE USE OF ANOTHER'S TRADE-MARK, EVEN THOUGH THE ARTICLE IS NOT TO BE SOLD IN THE HOME MARKET.

This was decided in the case of the *Crowley* Steel before mentioned: for, there, the defendants showed that they had not sold any such steel in the English market, as their business lay entirely with North America, whither they exported steel. The same point, as it will have been seen,

* Crawshay v. Thompson and others, 4. Manning v. Granger, 357.

occurred in the case of the Turkish word upon the watches. There they were made for a foreign market.

XII. A TRADESMAN, WHOSE MARK IS WRONGFULLY USED, CAN RECOVER SOME DAMAGES, EVEN THOUGH HE DOES NOT PROVE THE INFERIORITY OF THE ARTICLE OF THE WRONG-DOER.

Such damages at law are given for the invasion of the right by the fraud of another.*

In one case, at law, the judge, on the trial, put it as a question to the jury, whether the defendants' article was of inferior quality? This was no doubt done with reference to their calculation of the amount of damages; for his honor at the same time stated to the jury, that even if the defendants' goods were not inferior, the plaintiff was entitled to some damages, inasmuch as his right had been invaded by the fraudulent act of the defendants.

And the court of chancery has decided, that it is immaterial whether the simulated article is or is not of equal goodness and value to the genuine.†

XIII. THE DECEIT NEED NOT BE STAMPED OR LETTERED UPON THE BODY OF THE ARTICLE ITSELF. IT MAY BE UPON SOMETHING THAT HOLDS IT.

Thus, in a case relating to metallic hones, the inventor and manufacturer used certain envelopes for the same, denoting them to be his, while other persons, as was alleged, wrongfully made other hones, wrapped them in similar envelopes, and sold them as his own.‡ In this suit, on a motion for a new trial, one of the judges (Patteson) observed: "It is clear the verdict ought to stand. The defendants used the plaintiff's envelope, and pretended it was their own: they had no right to do that, and the plaintiff was entitled to recover some damages in consequence."

XIV. A FOREIGN MERCHANT HAS A RIGHT TO THE PROTECTION OF HIS MARK AND NAME UPON GOODS EQUAL WITH A RESIDENT AND CITIZEN.

This point was expressly raised in a case before Judge Story, but, as it has been said in another suit, he scouted the idea. It was also attempted to be pressed in the case relating to J. & P. Coats's thread, to which we have before adverted, as well as in another chancery proceeding, before Chancellor Walworth, which also related to spool-thread.

The fraud upon the buyers, in such a case, is just as apparent as in any other, while it would be hard that the original maker should have no right and no remedy, merely because he lives at a distance. The very circumstance of that distance should rather tell in his favor. The greatest minds have thrown their usefulness to the greatest distance.

In the case before Judge Story, his honor said: "First, it is suggested that the plaintiffs are aliens. Be it so; but in the Courts of the United States, under the constitution and laws, they are entitled, being alien friends, to the same protection of their rights as citizens. There is no pretence to say, that if a similar false imitation and use of the labels of a citizen put upon his own manufactured articles, had been designedly and fraudulently perpetrated and acted upon, it would not have been an invasion of his rights, for which our laws would have granted ample redress. There is no difference between the case of a citizen and that of an alien friend, where his rights are openly violated."

* Blofield *v.* Payne, 4. Barnwell and Adolphus, 410.
† Taylor *v.* Carpenter, M. S. before Chancellor Walworth, 3. December, 1844.
‡ Blofield *v.* Payne, 4. Barnwell and Adolphus, 410.

Our Chancellor Walworth, in the proceedings before him, observed: "The fact that the complainants are subjects of another government, and the defendant is a citizen of the United States, as stated in the answer, cannot alter the rights of the parties, or deprive the complainants of the favorable interposition of this court, if those rights have been violated by the defendant. So far as the subject matter of the suit is concerned, there is no difference between citizens and aliens. And the only question proper to be considered is, whether the defendant has the right, as he insists he has, to pirate the trade-marks of the complainants with impunity, and to palm off upon the community a simulated article as the genuine," &c.

The courts have carried the rules we have laid down beyond mere trade-marks upon goods, (as, indeed, we have already shown in the case of quack medicines.) They have decided in relation to magazines and newspapers, that a rival shall not assume a similar title for the fraudulent purpose of imposing upon the public, and of supplanting the original publisher and owner.*

But, our article must end here; for we believe we have referred to every important case bearing upon trade-marks.

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## ART. IV.—THE WINE DISTRICTS OF PORTUGAL AND MADEIRA.

The Portuguese wine is principally the well known Port. It is shipped from Oporto, and may hence derive its name either from the country, or from the city. We will first notice, from Dr. Henderson's work, the chief points in the cultivation of the district, and then glance at the regulations which have given such an artificial tone to the port-wine trade.

The wine country, or district of the Cima de Douro, or Upper Douro, commences about fifty miles from the harbor of Oporto, and presents a succession of hills on both sides of the river, which afford the choicest exposures, and such loose and crumbling soils as have been shown to be most propitious to the culture of the vine. The whole of this district is under the superintendence of a chartered company, called the "General Company for the Cultivation of the Vineyards of the Alto Douro." The vintages are usually divided into two principal classess, viz: factory wines, (*vinhos da feitoria,*) and secondary wines, (*vinhos de ramo.*) The factory wines are again divided into *vinhos de embarque*, or assorted wines, for exportation to England; *vinhos separados*, or assorted wines for exportation to the Portuguese colonies, or other foreign countries, or for home consumption. The *vinhos de ramo* are used partly for distillation, and partly for the supply of the taverns in Oporto, etc.

In the territory of the Cima de Douro, the vines are in general kept low, and trained on poles. Many different species are cultivated, some of which are for producing a wine of strong and full body, while others are destined for a milder and sweeter wine. As soon as the grapes begin to shrivel, they are gathered and introduced into broad and shallow vats, where they are trodden along with stalks; and this operation is repeated several times during the fermentation, which, in the case of the superior wines, continues about seventy-two hours. When the liquor has ceased to ferment, it is removed into large tuns, containing from eight to

* Hogg *v.* Kirby, 8 Vesey, 213; Snowden *v.* Noah, 1 Hopkins, 347; Bell *v.* Locke, 8 Paige's C. R. 75.

twenty pipes each. After the fair of the Douro, which commonly takes place in the beginning of February, the wine is racked into pipes, for the purpose of being conveyed down the river into the stores of the factory or of the wine-merchants at Oporto. To that which is reserved for exportation, a quantity of brandy is added when deposited in *armazens* or stores; and a second portion is thrown in before it is shipped, which is generally about twelve months after the vintage.

The establishment of the wine company at Oporto, arose out of the adulteration which some of the merchants effected on the wine, by adding to it a larger quantity of brandy than is ever put in any other sort of wine. But this establishment, good in its origin, soon produced very pernicious effects. In the beginning of the last century, a commercial treaty was made between England and Portugal, by which England offered to the wine of Portugal a decided advantage in her markets, on condition that Portugal took her woollens; and this led to a great export of Portugal wines to England. Down to about the year 1720, no brandy was added to the Oporto wines; but after that time the practice of so adulterating them, under the plea of making them bear the voyage better, came into vogue, and increased to a great degree. The English factors of Oporto addressed in 1754 a letter to their agents in the Alto Douro, complaining that "the grower, at the time of the vintage, is in the habit of checking the fermentation of the wines too soon, by putting brandy into them whilst fermenting." This complaint, and others about the same time, probably led to the formation of the company; for the quality of the wine became by adulteration so bad, that the demand for it lessened, the market price lowered, and the cultivators began to experience distress. Upon this, certain individuals at Oporto, in conjunction with the proprietors of the vineyards, succeeded in persuading the Portuguese government to sanction the formation of a joint-stock company, for the protection of the wine-trade of the district. The professed objects of these persons were, "to encourage the culture of the vineyards; to secure the reputation of the wines, and the support of both the one and the other by fixed prices; to promote in consequence inland and foreign commerce; and finally, to insure the preservation of the health of his majesty's subjects."

By royal letters patent, granted by the government of Portugal, these persons were authorized to form a company, with a capital of one million eight hundred thousand crowns. Among the better points of their charter were the following: First—that the district calculated for the growth of the export wines should be marked out, and the mixture of those wines with others from without the boundary prohibited. Second—That no one should be permitted to cover the vines with litter; as that operation, though it considerably augmented the produce, tended to deteriorate the quality of the wine. Third—That in the manufacture of the wine, no one should use elder-berries; which not only gave it a false and evanescent color, but also changed its natural flavor; (the planting of the elder being at the same time forbidden within the line of demarcation, and orders given to extirpate the plants that already existed.) Fourth—That after each vintage, a list should be made out of the number of pipes in every cellar within the district; and that the wine-tasters of the company, and others to be nominated by the farmers, should prove them, and arrange them in classes, distinguishing such as were fit for exportation, and delivering to the proprietors a corresponding ticket."

These were the more favorable points connected with the company's privileges; but the unfavorable ones came into play gradually, and wrought great mischief in many ways. The powers were intended to guard the quality and fitness of the Douro wines generally; but the company continued to interpret these powers to their own advantage, despite the injurious effect which resulted in other quarters. One of the evils is thus commented on by Dr. Henderson: "It must be evident to every one possessed of common understanding, that no greater absurdity could have been imagined, than to mark out a district of several leagues in extent, exhibiting a great variety of soils and exposures, as the only territory capable of producing wines for exportation; especially, when it was known that many of the growths within the line of demarcation were of inferior quality, while others without that boundary were of first-rate excellence. One obvious effect of this senseless enactment, has been to encourage smuggling on the borders; for those farmers whose lands produce only light wines, must naturally be tempted to improve them, and render them fit for purchase, by an admixture with the common ramo wines, which they can always procure at a low price, and import without much risk of detection." The company also possessed the power of fixing a maximum price for the wines of the district; a power which thus affected the agriculturalist: "If on favorable soils, and in propitious seasons, any superior wines were produced, it did not accord with the views of the company, that these wines should be sent to its customers in their original purity; as it was more advantageous to conceal the existence of them, and to use them for mixing with inferior sorts. The cultivator, therefore, of such fortunate growths, not being remunerated for his greater outlay, or for the superior skill and industry which he might have displayed in the management of his vineyard, could have no inducement to continue his exertions, but would henceforth content himself with raising, at the least possible expense, the greatest possible quantity of a middling quality, or such as he could most readily dispose of under the name of export wines."

The increase in the consumption of the wine of Oporto, in England, found (by Redding, in his history of wines,) in comparing the consumption of the first ten years of the 18th century, with the like number of years of the present century, is striking; it is as follows:

| | Tuns. | Hhds. | Galls. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Wines imported in England from 1700 to 1710,..... | 81,293 | 0 | 9 |
| " " 1800 to 1810,..... | 222,022 | 2 | 25 |

The non-export of pure wine from Oporto, first took place about 1715. It was then the Portuguese first begun to mingle brandy with the wines they sent to England. About this time the British government laid a duty of £55 5s., or $276 per tun upon French wines; while Portuguese wines were admitted at £7 5s. 3d. a tun. There is, says Redding, no necessity to search for any other reason why Port wine is now so generally drank in England. It was no intrinsic worth in the wines themselves, which introduced them into England, but the enormous difference between the duties on French and other wines, and those of Portugal. Custom has since hallowed them, and they are not likely to lose much ground for many generations, even should they get worse instead of better. "Englishmen," says Redding, an Englishman, "are wedded to long usages, and numbers believe Port wine is the only real wine in the world, and shiver wherever

Romanèe Conti or Lafitte is named." In 1730, Port wine was sold in England at fifty cents the bottle, and white wine of Portugal at the same price.

The total export of wines from Oporto for a period of ten years, from 1824 to 1833, was as follows:

| | ENGLAND. Pipes. | OTHER PORTS. Pipes. | TOTAL. Pipes. |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1824,..... | 19,968 | 6,149 | 26,117 |
| 1825,..... | 40,277 | 170 | 40,477 |
| 1826,..... | 18,310 | 287 | 18,597 |
| 1827,..... | 24,207 | 10,030 | 34,237 |
| 1828,..... | 27,932 | 13,295 | 41,227 |
| 1829,..... | 17,832 | 7,539 | 25,371 |
| 1830,..... | 19,333 | 4,832 | 24,165 |
| 1831,..... | 20,171 | 3,268 | 23,439 |
| 1832,..... | 13,573 | 2,977 | 16,550 |
| 1833,..... | 19,432 | 1,063 | 20,495 |

The quantity of pure Port wine imported into the United States is very small.

The other kinds of Portuguese wine, such as that of Lisbon, known by that name, and Bucellas, produced a few miles from Lisbon, are of comparatively small sale and importance; but the wine of Madeira, which may be regarded as a part of Portugal, has a few peculiarities about it worthy of notice.

The vine was cultivated in Madeira with a view to vintage four centuries ago; but till the latter end of the seventeenth century its wine was not much known out of the island. In 1689, a writer describes the hills as being covered with vines, from which wine was made, and that this wine was brought to the towns in hog-skins, upon asses' backs. At the present day, numerous varieties of grapes are grown on the island, some of which will bear for sixty years. The vines are planted in lines in the vineyards in front of the houses, upon trellis-work seven feet high; the branches are conducted over the tops, so as to be exposed horizontally to the sun's action; thus affording a canopy to those who walk under them, and yielding a shade very acceptable in a hot climate. On the north side of the island, the vines are trained up chestnut-trees, to shelter them from the violence of the wind. Some of these vines are grown on elevations nearly three thousand feet high, and wine is made at an elevation of two thousand.

The mode of making the wine is usually this. For the best qualities, the fruit is gathered at different times, and carefully picked; the unripe and damaged portions being set apart for the manufacture of an inferior wine. The operation of treading is performed in a trough formed of strong planks, or excavated in a lava rock, and the juice thus obtained is called *vinho da flor*. The bruised grapes are then placed within the coils of a thick rope, made of the twisted shoots of the vine, and subjected to the action of the press, which gives the second quality of must. This is usually mixed with the former, and the whole is fermented in casks containing one pipe each. A few pounds of baked gypsum are thrown in, as soon as the fermentation commences; and while it lasts, the liquor is stirred once a day with a large flat stick, in order to accelerate the process. On account of the mountainous nature of the country, the grapes are sometimes pressed in one place and fermented in another, to which they are conveyed on men's backs, either in goat-skins or in small barrels. The

fruit is ripe by the first week in September; and by the second week of November the vine is expected to be clear.

The meaning of the names "East India" and "West India" Madeira, will be gathered from the following remarks by Mr. Redding: "Madeira wine must attain age on the island, if it be not sent a voyage to a warmer climate, to gain its utmost excellence through a perfect decomposition of the saccharine principle. The expense of a voyage to the East Indies for this purpose is superfluous, as motion and heat will do it in any climate, and complete the decomposition of the principle which tends to fermentation. A pipe of Madeira has been attached to the beam of a steam-engine in the engine-house, where the temperature is always high, and the motion continual, and in a year it could not be known from the choicest East India."

Madeira wine is one of those which bears age remarkably well, and the wine has not yet been drunk too old. Its flavor and aroma perfect themselves by years. There is no mixture of any kind, but a little brandy on exportation, made to Madeira wine of the first growth, for any purpose whatever; almonds and various additions are used to bring up the character of the inferior growths to the standard of the first, and impose them upon the world for that which they are not. Some imagine the character of the wines to have deteriorated of late years, but there seems no reasonable ground for the supposition. Inferior growths have been imposed upon buyers for those of the first class; and there was naturally a reaction, as there must be with Sherry wines from the same cause, namely, inferior classes having been forced into the market from an unnatural demand.

Malmsey is a very rich wine made in Madeira, and is produced from a grape which will only flourish in one small spot in the island.

## Art. V.—MINERAL WEALTH AND RESOURCES OF VIRGINIA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE "MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE AND COMMERCIAL REVIEW."

SIR—I am indebted to the kindness of a friend for the perusal of the January number of your valuable work. In it I find a short notice of the coal, iron, gold, and copper of Virginia, with a request from you for additional information on the mineral resources of the state. In the communication I design to make, it is not my purpose to attempt anything beyond a very concise view of the subject, as none other would be admissable in a work like the "Merchants' Magazine." I am induced to give the information, though I know there are others much more competent, in the hope that even a very imperfect article on the subject may do some service to my state.

That portion of Virginia known as the tide-water district, like all the seaboard country south of the Gulf of St. Lawrence, is barren in minerals; but even there, nature has not withheld other favors, than those which meet the eye of the casual observer. Throughout this whole region, extensive beds of marl are found, waiting for the hand of industry to use them in restoring the exhausted fields, which the improvident agriculture of our ancestors have entailed upon their descendants, and which, I fear, will be bequeathed to another generation, a still more worthless inheritance.

If we draw a line across the state, from Maryland to North Carolina,

passing the Potomac, Rappahannock, James, Appomattox, and Roanoke rivers, at the head of tide-water, we divide two important sections of Virginia, whether we consider their topographical features, or general geological structure. West of this line, to the summit of the Blue Ridge mountains, is what is termed "the middle country." This district possesses many striking advantages for the agriculturist, as well as inducements for the investment of capital in mining and manufacturing. The most important mineral formation of this region, is the bituminous coal. This coal-field commences one mile east of Tuckahoe Creek, and twelve above Richmond, (measured by the line of the James and Kanawha River Canal, which passes through that portion of the field, north of James river;) its western limit is on the head waters of Jones' Creek, in Powhatan—the northern out-cross near the line, dividing Henrico and Hanover counties—to the south it extends to the Appomattox, and very probably beyond it. Within these limits, coal is mined at many places; and in some, the workings are quite extensive. On the north side of the river, the mines of Messrs. Croucher and Sneads, Randolph's, Barr's, Woodward's, Barr and Daton's, and Duval's, are the principal. On the south side, the Blackheath, Mid-Lothian, Mills and Reed's, Stonehenge, and Jallei's, are the most extensive. The Clover-Hill mines are now worked to a sufficient extent to attract attention to the very excellent coal which they yield. The coals from this field, both north and south of James river, will compare advantageously with the bituminous coals both of this country and Great Britain, as is shown by Professor Johnson's Report to the Secretary of the Navy, "On the Evaporative and other Properties of Coals," made in June, 1844.*

In this coal-field are found extensive beds of a mineral, which Professor Rogers calls natural coal; it is a valuable fuel, being found by analysis to contain 80.30 of carbon, in the 100 grains. Iron ores, in small veins, exist in this locality; but none have yet been discovered of sufficient importance to authorize the erection of smelting furnaces. North of the coal-field, in Spottsylvania and Louisa, there are several large deposits of iron ores. At the places of greatest development, viz: near Louisa court-house, and ten miles west of Fredericksburg, the smelting of these ores is successfully prosecuted. I would here remark, that near the present location of one of these furnaces, on the Rappahannock river, was smelted the first iron that was sent from the colony of Virginia to Great Britain; the furnace was erected by Alexander Spotswood, who was governor of Virginia, in 1710.

The next important deposit is in Buckingham, five miles south of the village of New Canton. In that vicinity a furnace was in operation during the revolution; but was discontinued shortly thereafter. In 1834 the works were rebuilt, and have been since extensively operated. There are other deposits of ore in Buckingham, near Williams mountain, and on the head waters of Stall river. In Nelson county, there is one smelting furnace; in Campbell, two; in both of these counties the deposits of ore are extensive. In Patrick Henry, Franklin, and Pittsylvania, the production of

* Extract from Professor Johnson's Report, page 598:—"It will not fail to be remarked, that the justly celebrated foreign bituminous coals of New Castle, Liverpool, Scotland, Pictou, and Sydney—coals which constitute the present reliance of the great lines of Atlantic steamers—are fully equalled, or rather surpassed in strength, by the analagous coals of Eastern Virginia."

iron has attracted some attention. Limestone is not abundant in this region; it is found in Albemarle, Amherst, Nelson, and Campbell, and also in Patrick Henry and Franklin.

Through this division of the state passes what has been called "the Gold Belt." Commencing in Spottsylvania, it extends through Louisa, part of Goochland, Fluvanna, Buckingham, Prince Edward's, Charlotte, and Pittsylvania. Vast sums of money have been expended in searching for the treasures of this region; and while some rich deposits were occasionally discovered, it has been, upon the whole, a disastrous employment of labor and capital.

Small veins of copper ore are said to exist in Fauquier and Amherst; but I believe they are found to be so minute as to be of no practical use. In Buckingham county, near the Virginia mills, there are extensive quarries of slate, admirably adapted for economical purposes; this is not properly a mineral, but may, I think, with propriety be mentioned in this connection. There are many other minerals in this region, but they are of that class, interesting only to the geologist.

Throughout this whole district there is a most abundant supply of excellent stone for building; granite, near the head of tide and in Bedford county; with sienite, gneiss, and sand-stone, more generally diffused. Middle Virginia possesses another great element of wealth to a people having such resources in coals and iron ores, which form the basis of manufacturing industry, in the unrivalled water-power afforded by her principal rivers, in passing from the great elevation at which their sources are found, to the ocean. At either Fredericksburg, Richmond, Petersburg, or the falls of the Roanoke, all the factories of Lowell or Paterson might be propelled. These are the prominent points; but along the James River Canal, from Richmond to Lynchburg, there are many localities where manufacturing towns and villages might be located to great advantage. At Lynchburg, being the western terminus of the canal, and the point at which all the iron of Botetourt, Bath, Rockbridge, and Alleghany comes, to be transported to the markets of the Atlantic seaboard, it would seem these advantages were very attractive; yet but little has been attempted in manufacturing by the citizens of that wealthy, and, in some respects, enterprising town.

I will next glance at the mineral resources of the third great division of the state; that portion so well known as "the valley of Virginia." To do justice to this delightful region, would require the pen of a much abler writer than your humble correspondent, and much more space than could be asked in your valuable journal. I will therefore, as I have said, merely glance at her mineral resources. For the production and manufacture of iron of the most superior quality, the counties between the Blue Ridge and Alleghany mountains have unrivalled advantages, in abundance of ores, fuel, water-power, cheap subsistence for laborers and animals, and a climate as salubrious as any on the globe. The excellent quality of the iron of this region is not mere matter of opinion, but is established by authority of the most conclusive character. The records of the ordnance office of the army and the bureau of ordnance for the navy, bear testimony to the great strength of the cannon made from the iron smelted at the old Clover Dale furnace, and that of Messrs. Shanks and Anderson, both at Botetourt. In like manner the proof boat of malleable iron at the Washington navy yard, sustains the reputation of the Virginia iron manufactured

at the Tredegar works in Richmond. Some recent experiments have been made in Boston by Mr. Alger, so well known as an iron manufacturer, which have resulted in showing that the pig iron from the Roaring Run furnace (also in Botetourt,) is remarkably adapted for all foundry purposes. Within the last year excellent steel has been made at Richmond from iron manufactured at the Buffalo forge in Rockbridge, of pig metal from Weaver and Newkirk's furnace in Bath county. In Pulaski county, the Messrs. Graham are manufacturing cut nails of superior quality. In Montgomery, Wythe, and Washington, bituminous coal is found in the same locality with iron ores of good quality; but no furnaces have yet been erected to use that fuel in smelting these ores. This coal formation extends into Botetourt county, where a vein of four feet has been opened, near the Catawba furnace; but not mined to any extent. In Wythe, lead ores have been smelted with much success. The lead is wagoned to Lynchburg, from whence it finds its way to the northern markets, where it meets with ready sale, and is considered equal to any produced elsewhere in the United States. Extensive beds of gypsum are found in Washington, Wythe, and Granger, which is not inferior to that so extensively imported from Nova Scotia. In Washington county, on the waters of the Houlston river, extensive salt-works have long been in operation, and have proved productive investments to their owners, as well as of great advantage to that community.

I will not lengthen this communication by any reflections on this mere enumeration of some of the treasures which Virginia possesses in this delightful valley; nor on the short-sighted policy which causes them, for want of lines of transport to market, to a great extent to remain where nature placed them, but will proceed to a rapid view of the fourth great division of my state, the Transalleghany counties.

If nature has dealt out her riches with stint to other parts of Virginia, she has dispensed them here most profusely. Western Virginia is like the "great west," with which she is connected geographically, and in political destiny, is almost superabundantly supplied with all the elements of national wealth. I shall not digress to notice the fertility of the soil, nor the mild and salubrious climate with which this region is so eminently blessed; but will in very general terms notice the extent of her possessions in coal, iron ores, which forms the basis of England's manufacturing wealth, if not her national grandeur.

The great American coal-field which commences in Pennsylvania, and extends to the Mississippi, and even beyond it, enters Virginia in Preston and Monongalia counties, and passes across the state into Kentucky and Tennessee. Over this entire region, coal is found associated with iron ores in almost numberless localities. Iron-works of considerable extent have been established on Monongalia river, and in Wheeling and its vicinity. Coal is mined in many places for the use of those works, and for consumption in the cities on the Ohio; and no inconsiderable quantity goes to New Orleans as domestic fuel.

Near Charleston, on the Great Kanawha, salt is made in vast quantities to supply the Western States.

I am admonished, by casting my eyes over what I have written, that I am appropriating more of your pages than I fear will be acceptable to your readers, and I will therefore conclude with the hope that the subject will be resumed by some one more competent to afford the information you desired to obtain.

D.

## Art. VI.—THE CHINESE MUSEUM IN BOSTON.

THE collection of the Chinese Museum, which is now open for public exhibition in the city of Boston, although not the first, is yet the largest that has ever been imported into the United States. The cabinet of the late Mr. Dunn, of a similar character, which was deposited in the city of Philadelphia, for the inspection of the public in 1839, was removed to the city of London, and these two are the only collections of this sort now known to be in existence; the present being the most considerable in the world. It embraces groups, presenting views of different forms in life, from the imperial court, through successive stages of society; the administration of justice, the different modes of travel, the practical exercise of the useful arts, commerce and agriculture, down to the peculiar kind of warfare which exists among that singular people; together with the various species of their manufactures, and indeed everything calculated to throw light upon Chinese character and institutions. We here have specimens of their shops, vessels, houses, lanterns, temples, tombs, bridges and paintings, and the innumerable products of industry, both useful and ornamental, which have peculiarly distinguished this ancient people. It is our design to show briefly the prominent features of this exhibition, by specifying the principal articles which it contains.

The entrance to the hall of the Museum, which is in the Marlboro' Chapel, is decorated with Chinese designs, being painted and gilded, and illustrated with such mottos as are calculated to distinguish the peculiar national character of the collection.

In the first place, we arrive at an apartment containing a group, the size of life, exhibiting the emperor and the principal personages of the imperial court, all the figures being covered with gold and silk embroidery; and in the next case, is the empress, accompanied by several ladies, the wives of mandarins of the several ranks, also richly clothed, with their attendants; adjoining this group, is a court of justice, where all the appliances of the law are administered, and a culprit is seen suffering the penalty of his crimes. In the fourth case, is a group representing a school, priests of the various religious sects, and paintings of numerous Chinese duties, as well as a tomb, mourning-dress, and mourning-lanterns. Another apartment portrays a domestic scene, namely, a Chinaman smoking opium, and his wife; and a female attendant with tea, all in a room such as is frequently occupied by individuals in that condition of life, with tables, chairs, book-case, made of bamboo; the walls adorned with paintings, lanterns hanging from the ceiling, and door-screen embroidered with gold.

We now arrive at the store of a merchant, which is alleged to be an exact representation of a mercantile establishment in Canton, where we find the same circumstances represented, as most commonly exist in the shops of that city at the present time. There are also presented views of Chinese modes of warfare, which clearly indicate the obtuseness or the obstinacy of the nation, in adhering to those instruments which it is obvious cannot successfully compete with the approved instruments of war in our own age. The next case gives us an accurate representation of an agricultural scene, in which is a man ploughing with a buffalo, as well as the various implements which are used for winnowing, irrigation, and other matters connected with husbandry. We also have a group in the collection, repre-

senting a carpenter, a blacksmith, and a shoemaker, each employed in his appropriate occupation. A tanka boat, pagoda, lacquered baskets, and other articles of a similar character, are in the next case.

But one of the most interesting parts of the exhibition, is that of the porcelain manufacture. It is well known that the Chinese empire has been long distinguished for the variety and elegance of its manufactures of porcelain, the article itself being most frequently named after the nation in which it was first made. There is here exhibited almost every variety of this product of Chinese industry, some of it of the most elegant and costly kind. Following this, there are also represented the various musical instruments which are used in China, including the gong, which it is well known has been introduced into our own country. The different species of cards, and ornamented as well as other paper, constitute a curious part of the exhibition; for it will be remembered that the Chinese are peculiarly scrupulous in all those matters which appertain to etiquette and ceremony. A model of a summer-house, a silk-store, a China-ware and curiosity-shop, comprise a portion of the collection, that will be of great interest to the mercantile portion of the visiters; and various enameled articles of a light kind, indicate the excellence to which the Chinese have carried this branch of their manufactures.

A model of a canal-boat, similar to that in which the tea is transported from the interior to the places of shipment at Canton and other ports on the seaboards, exhibits the species of vessels which are employed to a great extent upon the inland waters and canals of the empire, where they are either pushed along by men with bamboo poles, or are tracked with ropes. In addition to this, is a model of the junks which are employed in the commerce of China, especially in the coasting trade. The sails of these, like those of other Chinese vessels, are composed of mats, the ropes and cables of split rattans, and the husk of the cocoa-nut, and the anchors of a hard wood named by the Chinese "iron-wood." The Chinese trading junks are very curiously managed; besides the captain or pilot, is the principal owner, or agent of the owner; the captain or pilot sits almost continually on the weather side of the vessel, observing the coast, and seldom sleeping. Although he possesses the nominal command of the vessel, yet the sailors obey him or not as they please, and there is but little discipline or subordination in the conduct of the crew. Next to the pilot, is the helmsman, and there is also employed a purchaser of provisions, as well as clerks for the cargo; and another individual is engaged, whose business it is to attend to the offerings at the religious shrines. Each individual is a shareholder, with the privilege of placing a certain amount of goods on board; and it is obvious that in such a state of things, there can be but little of prosperous navigation, or of successful seamanship.

There is also presented in the Museum, a model of a hong-boat, and a mandarin-boat or revenue-cutter, whose ostensible object is to prevent the smuggling of opium, but which is more frequently employed in assisting its operations, or, at all events, in collecting a certain amount of taxes from the smugglers, by the mandarins who have such boats in charge. In addition to those several prominent articles that we have enumerated, are many smaller, the product of manufactures, and which are variously used in domestic life and the arts, together with models of theatres, a Buddhist Temple, colored lanterns, and numerous other things which are employed in domestic use, or that constitute staples of domestic export. We

would especially designate the numerous paintings, exhibiting in their execution the peculiar character of that class of Chinese productions.

In the various specimens of Chinese labor which are here collected, we perceive the products of a nation, which, notwithstanding its crowded population, possesses within itself all the resources of independence, without the absolute necessity of foreign commerce. The principal staples of import to our own country, which formerly consisted of silks, China-ware, and tea, have constituted a principal portion of the trade which we have prosecuted with that country up to this present time. The import of tea, it is well known, must continue, from the very great and increasing use of that staple with us; but from the manufacture of China-ware and silk elsewhere, their import to this country have been of late somewhat diminishing.

The recent difficulties which have sprung up between that nation and the British government, whatever might have been the merits of the question between them, there is no doubt, have induced such a negotiation, as to place the commerce of China with foreign nations upon a more permanent and solid basis. In consequence of the arbitrary and capricious exactions which have been exercised towards the persons and property of foreigners who have been employed in the Chinese ports, the commercial interests of Great Britain, as well as those of this country, have there suffered to a considerable extent; and the execution of a definitive treaty between our own country and that of China, has tended to define the position in which our commerce shall hereafter stand in the Chinese marts. From the contact of the Chinese empire with European civilization, we may, moreover, presume that the habits and wants of the people of that country will be materially changed; and that to the cotton goods, ginseng and lead, which we now export, will be added a long list of products, thus opening an increasing trade. We trust that whatever may be the change wrought in the condition of the Chinese, by its more extended commercial relations, the state of that empire may be advanced, and that the morals of the nation, which appear to be extremely debased, will receive an improved tone, not from an idolatrous philosophy, but from the spirit of a genuine and enlightened Christianity.

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## Art. VII.—LIFE IN CALIFORNIA—BY A MERCHANT.*

An unpretending volume, bearing the above title, and dedicated to William Sturgis, Esq., of Boston, one of the pioneers in the trade to the west coast of America, has just been ushered into life, without an acknowledged paternity. As this circumstance will, we fear, prejudice the sale of the work, we cannot but regret a course so modestly pursued by the author, however high we may appreciate the motives which induced it. The copyright notice leaves no room to doubt that it is the production of Alfred Robinson, Esq., of New York, one of our most enterprising and successful merchants. Mr. Robinson is a son of the late Colonel James Robinson, of Boston, who, for a long period, filled with honor civil posts of high trust, after having served in the Massachusetts line of the army, throughout the glorious contest which secured independence to the old confederation, and

* Life in California, by an American. New York, 1846. Wiley & Putnam. 1 vol., 16mo.

Alfred Robinson.

shed such broad-cast influence as promises eventually the establishment of other galaxies of free states extending to the utmost bounds of the western hemisphere.

The title of the work is alone sufficient to attract attention, in view of the present *fever* for the shores of the Pacific Ocean; although, to repeat a late conundrum, the course of our government regarding these shores, does not seem "to border much on the Pacific."

The volume in question, is "got up" in good style, with some interesting engravings elucidating the descriptions. It must be considered as very interesting, and quite descriptive of manners and customs of the different inhabitants of California. The relation of the personal adventures and business avocations of the author, gives us a much better idea of the domestic matters, the manner of living, the thoughts, sentiments, and actions of the natives, as well as of the sojourners there, than could be obtained by long and dry episodical descriptions.

The work, moreover, is written in a free, off-hand style, and the taste for the romantic and beautiful evinced by the occasional short delineations of scenery, convinces us that although his main thoughts were upon "the advantages of trade," yet that when even journeying to gather merchandise, he had still an eye for the beautiful in nature; and his power of expressing these thoughts, makes us regret that he had not devoted more of his book to them. The proximity of California to our own territory, and our daily increasing commercial relations with it, render a knowledge of the resources of this magnificent region of the utmost importance. And it is not less a subject of congratulation, that the industrious and enterprising of the Anglo-Saxon race are exploring and peopling these remote regions, than that, Cæsar-like, they are giving us also their graphic commentaries upon their own achievements. On page 6, our author thus informs us of his arrival in California:

"On the afternoon of the 15th February, 1829, the fog cleared up, and we behold the 'Punta de Pinos' bearing east, distant ten or twelve miles. This was the outer southern point of the bay of Monterey, into which we were soon slowly gliding. The breeze now died away, night closed around us, and as we approached our place of anchorage, nought was heard but the occasional cry of the leadsman in the chains, or the dip of the oars as the boatmen towed us slowly into port. Suddenly a flash was seen from the castle, the report followed, and a ball came whizzing across our bow, so near the boat as to throw upon the men the spray, as it glanced over the waters. 'Let go the anchor,' cried the captain. 'Aye, aye,' answered the mate, and then followed immediately the splash and the running out of the chain, until the heavy iron instrument had found its resting-place in the sand.

"A boat came off from the shore containing an officer of the customs and his assistant, sent by the commandant of the 'Presidio.' They appeared much pleased when informed that we wished to trade on the coast, and particularly so, when made acquainted with the nature and amount of the ship's cargo. The conversation soon became general, and the more intelligent of the two (Don Manuel Jimeno) gave us an account of the country, its government, missions, and its political condition at that time. He spoke also of the affair of the ship Franklin of Boston, which had a short time previous been detained by the authorities on suspicion of being engaged in contraband trade, causing much excitement throughout the country, and consequent restrictions on commerce. Her flight from the port of St. Diego was thought miraculous, running the gauntlet of a heavy battery within pistol shot of the cannon's mouth, and yet escaping without injury. On she sailed, leaving her enemies in the distance, little heeding their guns, till, once more rolling to the swell of the mighty ocean, she approach-

ed Point Loma, when a light cloud was seen to emerge from her side, and the report of her cannon came reverberating among the hills, as if in derision of a government of such pusillanimity.

"The local government, exasperated by this open defiance of their authority, sought by more stringent regulations of trade to prevent in future any fraud upon the revenue; and conscious of its weakness at most of the ports along the coast, laid an embargo upon all, with the exception of the more strongly fortified places of Monterey and St. Diego, at which ports, only, foreign vessels were allowed to enter and discharge their cargoes.

"This restriction, if insisted upon, would overturn all our calculations, and in fact insure a total failure of the voyage. It was now resolved to write to the Governor at St. Diego, setting forth the fact of our having fitted out from the United States with the supposition that no change would be made in the regulation of commerce; that the recent alteration had not given sufficient time for the news to have reached us prior to our departure from home, and that consequently, he should take into consideration the embarrassment of our situation, and repeal in some way the restrictions of the new law.

"The next day, when I was to look for the first time upon those shores which were to become for some years my home, was necessarily one of great excitement, and I hurried on deck much earlier than my usual hour. Before us lay stretched out the shore, and as it curved away toward the northern extremity of the bay, the swell of the ocean, wave after wave, echoed loud and heavily upon its sands. The sun had just risen, and glittering through the lofty pines that crowned the summit of the eastern hills, threw its light upon the lawn beneath. On our left was the 'Presidio,' with its chapel dome, and towering flag-staff in conspicuous elevation. On the right, upon a rising ground, was seen the 'Castillo,' or fort, surmounted by some ten or a dozen cannons. The intervening space between these two points was enlivened by the hundred scattered dwellings, and here and there groups of cattle grazing.

"Monterey is situated on the declivity of a beautiful rising ground, the top of which is crowned with stately pines. The gradual ascent to its elevated summit is covered with scattered woods and rich and varied flowers. The woods contain an abundance to gratify the sportsman, and a variety to enchant the botanist."

AT SAINT PEDRO.

"As we anticipated, our friends came flocking on board from all quarters, and soon a busy scene commenced, afloat and ashore. Boats were plying to and fro, launches laden with the variety of our cargo passing to the beach, and men, women and children crowding upon our decks, partaking in the general excitement. On shore all was confusion. Cattle and carts laden with hides and tallow, "*gente de razon*," and Indians, busily employed in the delivery of their produce, and receiving in return its value in goods; groups of individuals seated around little bonfires upon the ground, and horsemen racing over the plain in every direction. Thus the day passed; some departing, some arriving; till long after sunset the low white road leading across the plain to the town, appeared a living panorama."

SANTA BARBARA.

"In the course of a week we sailed for Santa Barbara, where we arrived safely, and commenced landing our cargo. Many of our packages were bulky, and it required considerable care to get them through the surf without damage; and owing to the distance of the ship from the shore, and the rough state of the beach at times, a fortnight elapsed ere everything was disembarked. At length the last load was deposited in the house, and the men were employed in getting on board wood and water; this having been accomplished, the ship made sail, and stood out of the bay, on her way to St. Diego, where she was to take in her home cargo. The breeze was fair, and a few hours carried her beyond the reach of our glasses.

"So, now I was a resident on shore—a 'comerciante de Santa Barbara.' My

house was a building of one story, containing one large room some fifty feet square, and four smaller ones. The large one was filled to the roof with bales and boxes, leaving a narrow passage only for communication with the other apartments, which were differently occupied. One of these was fitted up with shelves and a counter, serving as a show-room, and another I had transformed into a bed-chamber. I slept in a cot suspended from the cross-beams of the roof; and, besides the necessary furniture of chairs, tables, looking-glass, &c., I had displayed against the wall, two old muskets newly brightened up, two pair of pistols, and a very terrific sword. The sight of these appalling instruments was ample security against the rogues, who were generally lounging about the door, leading from the corridor to the street. I had but one companion, a servant, who had lived for many years in my father's house, and had followed me in my wanderings. Poor David! he was a good, honest fellow, officiating in many capacities, and often remaining in sole charge of a valuable amount of property; but he was fated to meet a watery grave a few years afterwards, in crossing the passage from Santa Barbara to St. Buenaventura.

"A launch was to take place at St. Pedro, of the second vessel ever constructed in California. She was a schooner of about sixty tons, that had been entirely framed at St. Gabriel, and fitted for subsequent completion at St. Pedro. Every piece of timber had been hewn and fitted thirty miles from the place, and brought down to the beach upon carts. She was called the 'Guadaloupe,' in honor of the patron saint of Mexico; and as the affair was considered quite an important era in the history of the country, many were invited from far and near to witness it. Her builder was a Yankee, named Chapman, who had served his apprenticeship with a Boston boat-builder. Father Sanchez used to say that Chapman could get more work out of the Indians than all the mayordomos put together."

SAN FRANCISCO.

"San Francisco has one of the largest and most valuable harbors in the world. Nature has so defended its narrow entrance, that with but little expense it might be made perfectly impregnable. Its steep and lofty cliffs on either side, combined with other prominent locations within, might be so fortified as to bid defiance to the most powerful and determined foe. The soundings are deep, and, in mid-channel, may be found in from forty to fifty fathoms. The course for vessels coming in from sea, is generally midway between the bluff points of land."

Commodore Wilkes, in vol. 5, p. 159, of his Exploring Expedition, says: "The combined fleets of all the naval powers of Europe might moor within it;" which forcibly impresses us with the vast importance of this post to the United States. Possessing already a fleet of some six hundred whalers, valued at least at $20,000,000 in the neighborhood, and daily increasing, a negotiation for the purchase of Upper California ought not to be deferred. And we sincerely hope that Mr. Slidell, as has been stated more than once, is empowered to treat with the government of Mexico for the cession of this valuable province.

"The soil is excellent, and perhaps in no part of the world more yielding, particularly for wheat. As an instance of its immense fertility, in this respect, the following circumstance was related to me by the mayor-domo of the mission of St. Jose. Eight fanegas, equal to twelve bushels of wheat, were sowed, which yielded twelve hundred fanegas, or eighteen hundred bushels; the following year, from the grain which fell at the time of the first harvest, over one thousand bushels were reaped; and again, in the succeeding year, three hundred bushels. The average production of wheat is one hundred fanegas for one sowed. In many parts of the country irrigation is necessary, but here, owing to the heavy dews which fall at night, the earth becomes sufficiently moistened for cultivation."

We trust that in a new edition, which will doubtless be called for, the author will give us a more particular account of the institution of the Presidios, or mission-stations, and more statistics relative to the resources and trade of California.

We are pleased with the justice done to the pious men who founded these stations, and to the good lives of their successors; and likewise that instead of the sweeping denunciations generally branded against religious belief and practice different from our own—against manners and customs at variance with our accustomed notions, our author does ample justice to the people amongst whom he was domesticated; and without apologies for their vices, places their character and habits in such lights as to convince us of the fidelity of his statements, and enables us to judge correctly of the inhabitants of Alta California. The lover of Indian antiquities will be pleased with the translation Chenig-Chenich, appended to the narrative; and although no new lights are thrown upon the "vexed question" of "Whence came the aborigines of America?" yet the description of the various Indian beliefs respecting the creation of mankind are curious, and afford matter for speculative comparison.

When we reflect that this superb region is adequate to the sustaining of twenty millions of people; has for several hundred years been in the possession of an indolent and limited population, incapable from their character of appreciating its resources—that no improvement can be expected under its present control, we cannot but hope that thousands of our fellow countrymen will pour in and accelerate the happy period (which the work before us assures us cannot be distant) when Alta California will become part and parcel of our great confederacy; and that the cry of "Oregon" is only a precursor to the actual settlement of this more southern, more beautiful, and far more valuable region.

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## MERCANTILE LAW CASES.

LIABILITY OF BANKS FOR NEGLECT TO PROTEST DRAFTS FORWARDED FOR COLLECTION—DISCHARGE OF ENDORSERS, ETC.

In the Court of Common Pleas, Boston, February 23d, 1846, before Judge Washburn. Joseph Ballister, *et. al.*, *v.* The Farmers' and Mechanics' Bank. This was an action on the case, brought against the Farmers' and Mechanics' Bank of Philadelphia, for negligence in not protesting in proper time a draft forwarded to them for collection.

It appeared in evidence that a draft on John Rinewalt of Philadelphia, for $500, payable sixty days after sight, was deposited in the State Bank at Boston, by the plaintiffs, and by the State Bank forwarded to the Farmers' and Mechanics' Bank at Philadelphia. It was received by the latter bank on the 23d of August, 1844, and presented to and accepted by Rinewalt on the 24th. Consequently it matured on the 26th of October. On the 25th of October, it was handed by the bank to their Notary, and by him protested on that day, and notices forwarded. The Notary returned the draft to the Farmers' and Mechanics' Bank on the 26th, before 9 A. M., and it was enclosed and forwarded to Boston by the mail of that day. The plaintiffs refused to receive the draft, and returned it to the Farmers' and Mechanics' Bank, and claimed to have it passed to their credit. The bank refused to do this, and the plaintiffs afterwards, on the 4th of December, sued Rinewalt, the acceptor, and obtained judgment and execution, but could find no property on which to levy the same. Evidence was introduced by the defendants, tending to show that Rinewalt, the acceptor, was a partner of the drawers, and that he (Rinewalt) was now able to pay the draft. There were endorsers on the draft, as to whose pecuniary responsibility no evidence was put in by either party.

It was contended for the plaintiffs—1st. That the bank, having received the

draft, were bound to take all the necessary and usual steps to secure its acceptance and payment at maturity, and, in case of non-payment, to protest it on the day of its maturity. 2d. That the bank were guilty of negligence in handing the draft to the Notary on the day before it was due, as they thereby misled him—it being the universal custom of this bank, as was proved, to hand their notes to their Notary to be protested at the close of banking hours on the day on which they fell due. 3d. That the draft having been returned to the bank on the morning of the 26th, the day it matured, it was the duty of the bank to keep it at its counter for payment till the close of business hours, and then to have it protested—and that it was carelessness in them not to do so.

It was contended for the defendants—1st. That the bank and the Notary were distinct agents, and that the bank by delivering the draft to the Notary relieved themselves of all responsibility, and that the duty of protesting the draft at the proper time devolved upon the Notary. 2d. That the jury could give no damages, because there was evidence that Rinewalt, the acceptor, who was still liable on the draft, was good for that amount. 3d. That if Rinewalt was not good, still the plaintiffs could not recover, because they had not proved that the endorsers and drawers, who were discharged by want of protest on the proper day, were able to pay the debt had they not been discharged. It was further contended that there being evidence that the drawers and acceptor were partners, the drawers were not discharged, because they were not entitled to notice.

Washburn, J., instructed the jury that it was admitted that the draft was not protested at the proper time, and that thereby the endorsers were discharged, and also the drawers, unless they were partners of Rinewalt, and drew on partnership account, but without funds in Rinewalt's hands—that this was the result of negligence somewhere—that it could not be charged upon the bank, if they had given the draft to a proper Notary, at a proper time—but if they gave it to him at such a time as to mislead him, and the effect was to mislead him, they would be liable—that if the draft came back to them during the business hours of the 26th, and they knew it matured on that day, which they were bound to know, if it was in their possession, then their duty was to send it back to the Notary, to be protested on that day—that if they found the bank guilty of negligence, then the plaintiffs were entitled to a verdict—that in making up the amount of damage, they were to assess the actual damage the plaintiffs had sustained—that the question, whether the draft was now of any, and, if so, what value, was open for their consideration.

The jury found a verdict for the plaintiffs, and assessed damages at $539.

C. T. & T. H. Russell for the plaintiffs. C. G. Loring and Geo. W. Phillips for the defendants.

COMMISSION MERCHANTS—ACTION OF ASSUMPSIT.

In the Supreme Judicial Court of Massachusetts, before Judge Hubbard, an action of assumpsit was brought by Upham, Appleton & Co., *v.* Robert Lefaror, to recover a balance of $2,521 26, alleged to be due to the plaintiffs from the defendant, on the first day of October, 1844, the date of the writ. The plaintiffs are commission merchants in Boston, and on the first day of May, 1844, they agreed to advance money to the defendant, and to furnish him with their acceptances, to enable him to purchase sheep-skins, upon an agreement to pull and consign the wool to the plaintiffs for sale, upon a guaranty commission. In pursuance of this agreement, the defendant made a large purchase of skins in Albany, in May, 1844, and drew for cash and on time upon the plaintiffs, who honored all his bills. The cash advances were about $2,500, and the acceptances $1,700. When the acceptances were maturing, the plaintiffs had not received the wool, and the defendant, having no means to enable them to take up their acceptances, proposed to the plaintiffs to furnish new acceptances, which he would procure the money upon, to enable them to provide for the first drafts. This was done, and soon after the greater part of the wool was received by the plaintiffs, and some sales were made. But the plaintiffs were then satisfied that they should not be reimbursed from the sales of the wool, and in consequence demanded additional secu-

rity of the defendant. This not being furnished, the plaintiffs stated their account, so as to show the balance of cash advances then made by them, excluding the outstanding acceptances, and brought the present action to recover this balance, and attached property of the defendant. Soon after, the plaintiffs were compelled to take up their acceptances, before receiving any thing from the sales of the wool, except a very small amount. The case now came before the court upon the report of the auditor, to whom the same was referred, and the principal facts appeared by that report, and the correspondence annexed to it.

The defendant contended that the sales of the wool should be credited by the plaintiffs in the order of time in which they were received, and that being applied in this way to the first items of indebtedness in the account, they had extinguished the plaintiff's cause of action. The plaintiffs, on the other hand, contended that a commission merchant is authorized by law to apply the proceeds of the consignment to pay any subsequent item charged against the consigner before the proceeds are received, and to bring an action for any previous sums of money advanced to the same consignment.

Hubbard, J., delivered the opinion of the court.

1. It is a well established principle in the law merchant, that a commission merchant is bound to wait only a reasonable time for reimbursement of his advances, and then, if the goods are not sold, he may call for payment, or further security, and may sue for the amount due. The plaintiffs therefore had a good cause of action, when the suit was brought.

2. The plaintiffs had a right to apply the proceeds of the goods, as they were received, towards the discharge of the moneys paid for the defendant after the suit brought, but paid prior to such receipts. This was an appropriation which the plaintiffs had a right to make, in the absence of any direction from the defendant, if he had had any right to control it; and the bringing the suit by them was evidence of such intended appropriation, coupled with the manner of stating and separating their account. The plaintiffs by their attachment had added to their security, and it is one of the rules of law, where other rules do not interfere, to apply payments to the debt not secured either by property or by action.

Judgment for the plaintiffs for the whole amount claimed, deducting the sum of $250 received before any acceptances had matured.

### THE LAW OF PATENT—INJUNCTION IN THE CASE OF ESSEX HOSIERY MANUFACTURING CO., *vs.* DORR MANUFACTURING CO.

In the United States Circuit Court, (at Boston,) before Judge Sprague. This was a proceeding for an injunction, which came on for a hearing on the bill and affidavits. The plaintiffs set up a patent for an improvement in the rotary power stocking loom, issued to Richard Walker, December 5, 1839, and which had come to them by sundry intermediate assignments. The defendants had built and used machines, according to the subsequent patent issued to the said Richard Walker and Jefferson McIntire, February 12, 1844, and which had been assigned to the defendants. It was alleged that the machines built under the second patent, were an infringment on the plaintiff's rights. The case occupied the court for more than a week.

Sprague, J., in delivering his opinion, said that a preliminary injunction should only be issued for the purpose of preventing mischief, and in aid of the legal right. A judgment at law, although the best evidence, was not the only evidence of the legal right; but, in its absence, the court would look more carefully into the circumstances of the case, and especially to the mischief that might be produced by granting an injunction. The vigilance or acquiescence of the complainant, were also circumstances requiring attention.

1. As to the point of mischief; the defendants had a manufacturing establishment, of more than $100,000 capital, and employing more than a hundred workmen. An injunction, by arresting their business, would produce great mischief, for which, if the suit should terminate in their favor, there would be no remedy. On the other hand, there was no doubt of their pecuniary ability to pay the damages which should be awarded, in case the suit should be determined in favor of

the plaintiffs. And the danger that others would follow the defendants' example, did not appear to be imminent.

2. As to the point of vigilance; the plaintiffs had notice of the application for the patent which the defendants hold, and resisted it. In the summer of 1844, the agent of the holders of the first (the plaintiffs') patent, saw a machine made under the second patent publicly exhibited, and in February, 1845, saw one of them in actual operation. The present suit was not brought until October. There had, consequently, been some want of vigilance on the part of the plaintiffs, not affecting their legal rights, but to be taken into view upon the application for an injunction.

3. As to the evidence of the legal right; the strength of the plaintiffs' exclusive possession, as evidence of their exclusive right, depended upon the knowledge which the public had of it, their interest to resist it, and the extent and duration of their submission to it. This machine had been used by no one but the plaintiffs and their predecessors; and an agent had been unsuccessful in attempting to introduce it in England and Scotland.

His honor then reviewed the evidence as to the question whether the plaintiffs' patent had been infringed by the defendants, and said that, without expressing an opinion further than it was necessary to dispose of the question before him, he considered that the plaintiffs' right, so far as the acts of the defendants might affect it, was left in too much doubt to authorize a preliminary injunction, under the circumstances of the present case. He therefore refused to grant the injunction, but ordered that the defendants keep an account, to be forthcoming on the trial of the action at law now pending between the parties.

ACTION TO RECOVER DAMAGE FOR INJURY DONE MERCHANDISE ON SHIP-BOARD.

In the Supreme Court, (New York city,) February 9th, 1846, before Judge Oakley, an action was brought by L. L. Palmieri, *v.* Frederick Schucharett and F. W. Favre, to recover damages for injury done to sugar, on board the defendants' ship, after she had arrived in this port, from leaking. Several witnesses proved that the vessel had not been examined or pumped for two or three days after her arrival, and that several inches of water got into the hold, which would most probably not have been the case, had the vessel been pumped every day.

The court charged the jury, that if the sugar was injured before the vessel got into port, then the owners were not responsible, as they were not insurers of the goods; but if the sugar was injured by water getting into the vessel after she arrived at the dock, then the owners of the ship were responsible for it.

Verdict for plaintiff for amount claimed, $2,170 42.

ACTION TO RECOVER VALUE OF MERCHANDISE DEPOSITED IN A PUBLIC YARD.

In the Supreme Court, Judge Oakley presiding, (New York, February 25th, 1846,) an action was brought by Heron, Lees & Co., *v.* John Ryker, Jr., and Varick & Trowbridge, to recover for the value of pork deposited in the public yard of Ryker, who was inspector of beef and pork, which, it was alleged, he delivered to the order of the other two defendants. It was proved that the plaintiffs deposited the pork in Ryker's yard, and it was also shown that certain pork was delivered to the order of the other two defendants, who had also pork in the same yard, but it was not clearly shown that the pork so delivered was part of that deposited there by the plaintiffs.

The court charged the jury, that as to Ryker, the case was clear, and there could be no doubt of his being responsible for the pork deposited in his yard by the plaintiffs. If Varick & Trowbridge, being apprised of the fact that they had no pork in the yard, received from it the property of the plaintiffs, then they were responsible for it. But if they had pork there, and Ryker chose to deliver to them other pork than their own, it was his fault, and he only was responsible for it. There was reason to believe that it was the practice in those pork yards to put all the different lots of pork together, without distinction, and when the owners applied for it, to deliver it to them without inquiring whose pork it really

was; on the ground that all the pork in the yard was of the same quality, and therefore it was unimportant to distinguish each individual's parcel. This, however, was a mistaken notion on the part of keepers of pork yards. It is their duty to keep each parcel separate, and if they mix them up, they do it at their own responsibility. If the pork of plaintiffs was not there when called for, Ryker is responsible for it. Verdict for plaintiffs against Ryker $2,185, and the other two defendants acquitted.

# COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE AND REVIEW.

PRESENT STATE OF THE COMMERCIAL WORLD—PROBABLE CHANGES ABOUT TO TAKE PLACE—PROPOSED REDUCTION OF TAXES ON VARIOUS ARTICLES OF BRITISH INDUSTRY IMPORTED INTO THIS COUNTRY—GOODS IMPORTED INTO THE UNITED STATES, THE AMOUNT OF DUTY PAID, THE RATE PER CENT OF THAT DUTY AND THE PROPOSED DUTY—QUANTITIES AND VALUES OF SUNDRY IMPORTED ARTICLES COMPARED, FOR THREE YEARS—AD VALOREM RATE OF SPECIFIC DUTIES IN EACH YEAR—BANKS OF THE UNITED STATES, AND ANNUAL IMPORTS—IMPORT FROM, AND EXPORTS TO, ENGLAND—BRITISH DUTIES AT FOUR PERIODS, VIZ: 1840, 1842–44, 1844–45, AND 1846—A GENERAL VIEW OF THE IMPORTANT CHANGES ABOUT TO TAKE PLACE IN COMMERCIAL AFFAIRS, AND THEIR PROBABLE RESULTS—THE STATE DEBT OF MARYLAND, INDIANA, MICHIGAN, MISSISSIPPI, PENNSYLVANIA, ETC., ETC.

The commercial crisis which has gradually been drawing to an issue since the peace of 1815, is now apparently at hand, and great innovations upon long established usages, received opinions, and time-honored prejudices, are about to take place. The vast trade carried on between the United States and Great Britain, hitherto on principles nearly prohibitory, is suddenly to be placed upon a basis allied to free trade, on both sides of the Atlantic. Thus, of $117,254,564 imported into the United States in 1845, $49,903,725 came from Great Britain, at duties ranging from 40 a 46 per cent on the leading articles. It is now proposed to charge but 20 a 25 per cent on these articles, thus reducing by one-half the taxes on those articles of British industry which were largely imported under a high tax, but which necessarily must, at some rate, come into the country in return for cotton and other produce sold to her. This relaxation it is proposed shall take effect October 1st, or after the fall imports shall have been made, thus subjecting the southern buyers for the fall trade to a high tax, from which the later western trade may be exempt. The certainty that the duty would be removed in October, would probably have the effect of retarding the fall imports to a much later period than usual, and by so doing derange the customary course of trade, and make goods in the early fall scarce and high; whereas, if the bill takes effect immediately, as did the tariff of 1842, the fall goods would enjoy the benefit of the relaxation, and an over-movement in consequence of the reduced tax would probably be kept in check by the operation of the specie clause of the Independent Treasury Bill, which, introduced into the House as an amendment, provides for the collection of all dues to the government, after June, 1846, in gold and silver only, a provision which will operate powerfully against excessive imports. The new bill does not provide for any transfer of funds from present depositories, but simply for the payment into the treasury of those dues which may accrue, in gold and silver, and for the checking of the funds out of present depositories as the wants of the government may require. This will doubtless produce a great change in financial operations, but it will act as a preventative to those evils which are apprehended from low duties. The following table of goods imported into the United States, the amount of duty paid, the rate per cent of that duty, and the proposed duty, is indicative of the radical extent of the change.

GOODS IMPORTED INTO THE UNITED STATES, WITH THE DUTIES PAID.

| Articles.—(Specific duty.) | 1843. Quantities. | 1843. Duty. | 1843. P. ct. | 1844. Quantities. | 1844. Duty. | 1844. P. ct. | 1845. Quantities. | 1845. Duty. | 1845. P. ct. | 1845. Prop. du. Free. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Salt,.....bush. | 5,454,577 | $436,366 | 61 | 8,943,139 | $659,451 | 72 | 8,543,527 | $683,482 | 76 | 20 |
| Coal, .....tons | 41,163 | 72,035 | 62 | 87,073 | 152,377 | 64 | 85,756 | 150,108 | 67 | 20 |
| Iron, pig,.....cwts. | 77,461 | 34,857 | 72 | 298,880 | 134,496 | 67 | 550,209 | 247,594 | 49 | 30 |
| Iron, bar, rolled,..... | 315,157 | 393,946 | 77 | 757,824 | 947,280 | 80 | 1,023,772 | 1,279,715 | 75 | 30 |
| " " ..... | 125,081 | 106,318 | 33 | 236,451 | 200,983 | 35 | 363,530 | 309,000 | 36 | 30 |
| Hemp, ..... | 36,269 | 72,538 | 32 | 50,752 | 101,501 | 39 | 28,155 | 56,310 | 39 | 20 |
| Raisins,.....lbs. | 7,083,013 | 212,490 | 77 | 8,492,456 | 254,773 | 80 | 7,573,897 | 227,216 | 43 | 20 |
| Sugar,..... | 69,534,331 | 1,738,358 | 72 | 179,857,491 | 4,496,437 | 66 | 111,957,404 | 2,798,935 | 61 | 30 |
| Molasses,..... | 129,536,523 | 582,914 | 51 | 249,428,872 | 1,122,429 | 40 | 201,311,364 | 905,901 | 29 | 30 |
| Silk goods,..... | 215,038 | 537,595 | 31 | 634,426 | 1,586,065 | 25 | 763,285 | 1,908,657 | 24 | 25 |
| Spirits,.....galls. | 586,360 | 436,325 | 180 | 1,409,905 | 1,171,495 | 150 | 1,978,836 | 1,635,434 | 170 | 75 |
| Other specific,..... | | 1,764,705 | | | 4,704,518 | | | 2,338,385 | | |
| Total specific,..... | | $6,390,419 | | | $14,531,808 | | | $14,540,737 | 42 | |
| **Ad Valorem Duty.** | | | | | | | | | | |
| Wool,.....lbs. | 3,332,654 | $9,517 | 5 | 13,808,645 | $37,722 | 5 | 23,382,097 | $77,689 | 5 | 20 |
| Wool over 7 cents,..... | 184,446 | 21,941 | 40 | 199,763 | 35,078 | 30 | 450,943 | 54,329 | 30 | 20 |
| Woollen cloths,.....value in dollars | 1,356,628 | 542,651 | 40 | 4,777,940 | 1,911,186 | 40 | 5,411,850 | 2,164,740 | 40 | 25 |
| Worsted,..... | 456,051 | 136,815 | 30 | 1,835,875 | 550,762 | 30 | 1,938,109 | 581,432 | 30 | 25 |
| Cottons, dyed,.....yards | 6,339,636 | 570,597 | 43 | 28,599,795 | 2,573,981 | 44 | 25,027,699 | 2,252,492 | 44 | 20 |
| " white,..... | 2,497,240 | 149,834 | 50 | 9,071,760 | 544,305 | 46 | 11,262,418 | 675,745 | 47 | 20 |
| " hose,.....value in dollars | 307,243 | 92,172 | 30 | 1,121,460 | 336,438 | 30 | 1,326,631 | 397,989 | 30 | 20 |
| Linen,..... | 1,202,772 | 300,693 | 25 | 3,703,532 | 925,803 | 25 | 4,298,224 | 1,074,556 | 25 | 20 |
| Apparel,..... | 114,493 | 44,797 | 40 | 864,034 | 345,613 | 40 | 1,105,796 | 442,318 | 40 | 30 |
| Straw hats,..... | 270,620 | 94,717 | 35 | 713,843 | 249,719 | 35 | 712,923 | 249,523 | 35 | 20 |
| Earthenware,..... | 534,051 | 160,215 | 30 | 1,512,642 | 456,492 | 30 | 2,187,259 | 656,177 | 20 | 20 |
| Hat-fur,..... | 87,702 | 21,925 | 25 | 519,893 | 129,973 | 25 | 465,739 | 116,434 | 25 | 20 |
| Other ad valorem,..... | | 2,006,842 | | | 6,522,186 | | | 7,533,693 | | |
| Total ad valorem,..... | | $4,153,686 | | | $14,449,348 | | | $16,278,117 | 27 | |

The change is here marked and great; but it is in fact the same step forward in commercial liberality of legislation that was taken backward in 1842. The table embraces the complete operation of the present tariff, and it is observable, that its operation has not been to check the import of goods permanently. The effect evidently, in the first year of its operation, was to check imports; but the scarcity then produced by the small imports, advanced the prices, which were supported by the large imports of specie, that again became the basis of an extended banking movement. When, by an accumulation of specie, the banks become more liberal in their loans, it affords to city dealers not only the means of buying more freely, but of becoming more liberal in the credits they grant to shopkeepers in the interior; prices advance, and the imports increase, notwithstanding the high duty. In the tables accompanying the treasury report, the evidence is conclusive that imports have increased, paying the same duty, accompanied by a rise in the foreign cost, as, for instance, in the article of bar and pig iron. We may compare the quantities and values imported of some of those articles that pay the highest specific duties.

| | 1843. | | | 1844. | | | 1845. | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Articles. | Quantity. | Value. | Price. | Q'ntity. | Value. | Price. | Q'ntity. | Value. | Price. |
| Sugar,.....lbs. | 69,534,331 | $2,436,011 | 3½ | 179,857,491 | $6,793,540 | 3¾ | 111,957,404 | $4,556,302 | 4. |
| Silks, ..... | 215,636 | 1,719,616 | 7.46 | 634,496 | 6,908,239 | 9.75 | 763,463 | 7,791,985 | 10.25 |
| Iron, bar,....cwts. | 315,157 | 511,288 | 1.60 | 757,894 | 1,063,582 | 1.46 | 1,093,772 | 1,091,748 | 1.65 |
| Iron, pig,..... | 77,461 | 48,251 | .62½ | 298,860 | 200,529 | .67 | 550,209 | 506,991 | .92 |
| Salt,.....bush. | 5,454,577 | 710,489 | .13 | 8,943,139 | 911,512 | .11 | 8,543,597 | 898,663 | .10½ |
| Coal,.....tons | 41,163 | 116,312 | 2.82 | 87,073 | 236,963 | 2.72 | 85,756 | 223,919 | 2.60 |
| Molasses,....galls. | 12,665,198 | 1,134,220 | 9 | 22,675,352 | 2,833,753 | .12 | 18,301,036 | 3,154,782 | .17½ |

In all these cases there is an increase in the quantities imported; but the enhanced cost, arising from short crops in the case of sugar and molasses, and from the enhanced foreign consumption in other cases, has reduced the ad valorem rates of the specific duties as follows:

AD VALOREM RATE OF SPECIFIC DUTIES IN EACH YEAR.

| Years. | Sugar. | Silk. | Bar iron. | Pig iron. | Salt. | Coal. | Molasses. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1843,... | 71.65 | 31.26 | 77.05 | 72.24 | 61.42 | 61.93 | 51.36 |
| 1844,... | 66.18 | 25.54 | 88.89 | 67.07 | 72.35 | 64.30 | 39.61 |
| 1845,... | 61.42 | 24.49 | 75.64 | 48.90 | 76.05 | 67.03 | 28.71 |

As a general result, however, the increase of revenue arose from an increased import of those goods which pay the least duties. If now we compare the imports of the last three years with the leading features of about 700 banks of the United States, on or about the 1st of January, of each of the last three years, as compiled at the Treasury department, we shall have results as follows:

BANKS OF THE UNITED STATES, AND ANNUAL IMPORTS.

| | | | | | | *Imports.* | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Yr. | No. bks. | Deposits. | Circulation. | Specie. | Loans. | Free. | Dutiable. | Total. |
| 1843, | 691 | $56,168,633 | $58,563,606 | $23,515,806 | $254,544,937 | $13,934,949 | $89,179,215 | $48,432,464 |
| 1844, | 696 | 84,550,785 | 75,167,646 | 49,898,969 | 264,905,814 | 18,936,452 | 83,668,054 | 102,604,506 |
| 1845, | 707 | 88,029,646 | 89,608,711 | 44,941,948 | 288,617,131 | 18,047,598 | 93,106,794 | 113,154,312 |

The currency, as furnished by the banks, has increased steadily, until it reached, in 1845, 60 per cent more than in 1843. The returns for the banks are near January in each year, and the fiscal year ends with the June following, so that the position of the banks is taken at the middle of each fiscal year. In this movement of the banks we have the cause of the enhanced import under the same duties. It is observable that the value of the imports into the United States scarcely reaches the value of American produce sold abroad. The cotton, tobacco, and raw material which England is compelled to buy, must be paid for, otherwise the United States loses its labor. In 1843, near $23,000,000 came back in specie; that specie, in the hands of the banks, created the expansion which the above table evinces, and by so doing, apparently caused prices here to advance, to an extent sufficient to permit those goods to be imported under a tariff which was prohibitory, in connection with the dear currency of 1843. In consequence of the advance in prices,

dutiable goods have taken the place of specie as a remittance to the United States in payment of produce. This progressive movement became, however, checked with the close of 1845; and the duties of the first six months of 1846, are less by $2,011,000 than the corresponding period of 1845. England has uniformly had a large balance against her, as follows:

IMPORTS FROM, AND EXPORTS TO ENGLAND.

| | 1842. | 1843. | 1844. | 1845. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Import from, | $38,613,043 | $28,978,582 | $45,459,122 | $49,903,725 |
| Export to, | 52,306,650 | 46,901,835 | 61,721,876 | 61,044,535 |
| Excess of Exports, | $13,693,607 | $17,923,253 | $16,262,754 | $11,140,810 |

These imports include specie, of which $14,000,000 were included in the 28 millions imported from England in 1843. For the remainder, England accepts and pays bills on American account, from all quarters of the world. In the face of this state of affairs, she now has removed the duty on American farm produce, by which means her purchases from us may be doubled in a few years. The great change here marked out in the import trade from Great Britain, is to be met by a much greater revolution in the basis upon which American produce will be admitted into Great Britain. The whole exports of domestic produce from the United States, in 1845, was $99,299,776, of which amount $61,044,535 was sent to Great Britain and dependencies. The larger proportion of this export was raw cotton, on which England charged a duty of 2s. 11d. per cwt. until last year, when it was added to the list of free articles. Up to 1842, most of the other articles of American produce were nearly or quite prohibited by onerous duties. The relaxation which took place in 1842, upon most articles of the produce of the western states of America, caused a large trade to spring up in articles before excluded, and the exports of farm produce are now rapidly overtaking that of cotton. The exports were as follows:

| | 1842. | 1845. | Increase. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Rice, | $1,625,726 | $2,160,456 | $534,730 |
| Flour, | 3,763,073 | 5,398,593 | 1,635,520 |
| Pork, &c., | 2,120,020 | 2,991,284 | 871,264 |
| Beef, &c., | 1,092,949 | 1,926,809 | 833,960 |
| Butter and cheese, | 508,968 | 878,861 | 369,897 |
| Total, | $9,110,736 | $13,356,002 | $4,245,266 |
| Cotton, | 49,119,806 | 51,739,643 | 2,619,837 |

In addition to these articles, on which a reduction of duty has taken place, grain, as well as a long list of articles not heretofore exported from the United States to England, can now find sale there. The following table shows the vast change which has in a few years taken place, in relation to the duties upon foreign produce admitted into England:

BRITISH DUTIES AT FOUR PERIODS.

| | 1840. | 1842-4. | 1844-5. | 1846. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | £ s. d. | £ s. d. | £ s. d. | £ s. d. |
| Barley, pearl,.....cwt. | 18 0 | 5 0 | 5 0 | 2 6 |
| Rice, | 15 0 | 6 0 | 6 0 | 1 0 |
| Hops, | 8 11 0 | 4 10 0 | 4 10 0 | 2 5 0 |
| Cider,.....tun | 21 10 0 | 10 10 0 | 10 10 0 | 5 5 0 |
| Oil-cakes,.....ton | 3 4 | 1 0 | Free. | Free. |
| Beef, salt,.....cwt. | 12 0 | 8 0 | 8 0 | Free. |
| Pork, salt, | 12 0 | 8 0 | 8 0 | Free. |
| Lard and oil, | 3 0 | 2 0 | Free. | Free. |
| Clover-seed, | 1 0 0 | 10 0 | 10 0 | 5 0 |
| Flax and hemp,.....qr. | 1 0 | 0 1 | Free. | Free. |
| Mustard,.....bush. | 8 0 | 1 3 | 1 3 | 1 3 |
| Rape,.....qr. | 1 0 | 0 1 | Free. | Free. |

BRITISH DUTIES AT FOUR PERIODS—CONTINUED.

| | 1840. | | | 1842-4. | | | 1844-5. | | | 1846. | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | £ | s. | d. | £ | s. | d. | £ | s. | d. | £ | s. | d. |
| Linseed,.....qr. | | 1 | 0 | | 0 | 1 | Free. | | | Free. | | |
| Staves,.....load | 1 | 8 | 0 | 1 | 8 | 0 | Free. | | | Free. | | |
| Lead,.....ton | 2 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| Bark,.....per ct. | 20 | 0 | 0 | 20 | 0 | 0 | Free. | | | Free. | | |
| Oil, all vegetable,.....tun | 39 | 18 | 0 | 6 | 0 | 0 | Free. | | | Free. | | |
| Oil, whale,..... | 26 | 12 | 0 | 6 | 0 | 0 | Free. | | | Free. | | |
| Wax,.....cwt. | 1 | 10 | 0 | | 2 | 0 | Free. | | | Free. | | |
| Skins and furs,.....per cent | 20 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 0 | 0 | Free. | | | Free. | | |
| Hides,.....cwt. | | 4 | 8 | | 0 | 6 | Free. | | | Free. | | |
| Boots and shoes,.....doz. pairs | 1 | 10 | 0 | | 12 | 0 | | 12 | 0 | | 6 | 0 |
| " men's,..... | 2 | 14 | 0 | 1 | 8 | 0 | 1 | 8 | 0 | | 14 | 0 |
| Cotton-yarn,.....per cent | 10 | 0 | 0 | 10 | 0 | 0 | Free. | | | Free. | | |
| Flax and hemp,.....cwt. | | 0 | 1 | | 0 | 1 | Free. | | | Free. | | |
| Wool, sheep's, under 1s. per lb., | | 0 | 0½ | | 0 | 0½ | | 0 | 0½ | Free. | | |
| " over " | | 0 | 1 | | 0 | 1 | | 0 | 1 | Free. | | |
| Cotton,.....lb. | | 2 | 11 | | 2 | 11 | Free. | | | Free. | | |
| Crown glass,.....cwt. | 8 | 6 | 8 | 1 | 10 | 0 | 15 per ct. | | | | 6 | 0 |
| Cordage,..... | | 10 | 9 | | 6 | 0 | | 6 | 0 | Free. | | |
| Hemp, dressed,..... | 4 | 15 | 0 | | 4 | 0 | Free. | | | Free. | | |
| Pitch,..... | | 0 | 10 | | 0 | 6 | Free. | | | Free. | | |
| Rosin,..... | | 4 | 9 | | 2 | 0 | Free. | | | Free. | | |
| Tar,...per 12 bbls. of 31½ galls. | | 15 | 0 | | 2 | 6 | Free. | | | Free. | | |
| Turpentine,..... .....cwt. | 1 | 6 | 2 | | 1 | 0 | Free. | | | Free. | | |
| Coffee,.....lb. | | 1 | 3 | | 0 | 8 | | 0 | 8 | | 0 | 8 |
| Bladders,.....dozen | | 0 | 6 | | 0 | 3 | Free. | | | Free. | | |
| Bulrushes,.....ton | | 12 | 0 | | 10 | 0 | Free. | | | Free. | | |
| Feathers,.....cwt. | 2 | 4 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | Free. | | | Free. | | |
| Grease,..... | | 1 | 8 | | 1 | 8 | Free. | | | Free. | | |
| Butter,..... | | 20 | 0 | | 20 | 0 | | 20 | 0 | | 10 | 0 |
| Cheese,..... | | 10 | 6 | | 10 | 6 | | 10 | 6 | | 5 | 0 |
| Candles, tallow,..... | | 10 | 0 | | 10 | 0 | | 10 | 0 | | 5 | 0 |
| Tallow,..... | | 3 | 2 | | 3 | 2 | | 3 | 2 | | 1 | 6 |
| Indian corn,.....qr. | | 10 | 0 | | 10 | 0 | | 10 | 0 | | 1 | 0 |
| Hams,.....cwt. | | 14 | 0 | | 14 | 0 | | 14 | 0 | | 7 | 0 |

Of 46 articles, the produce of American industry, which were taxed nearly to prohibition in 1840, 28 are now absolutely free, and the remainder pay comparatively nominal duties. Perhaps the most remarkable change is in the tax on whale oil. From a duty of £26, or $150 the tun, it is now free. When we consider the care and pertinacity with which England has heretofore watched her shipping interest, with a view to the increase of her navy, and reflect how great a nursery for the growth of seamen is the whale fishery, we become struck with the extraordinary abandonment of all duty upon that article, allowing the free competition of the American whalers with those of Britain, in the English markets, for the sale of their oil. It is true that American enterprise, skill, and energy, have long monopolized the fisheries of the Pacific ocean, to the exclusion of all other nations, and we have now, as it were, a distinct admission from the English government of their dependence upon American whalers for an adequate supply of oil. The necessity of this supply at a cheap rate, is referred to the wants of the manufacturers, and the large quantities used for machines, &c. Nearly the whole of the above list of articles, if we except cotton and rice, are comparatively new articles of trade between the United States and England. Sole leather can be sent to advantage, and perhaps Lynn-made boots and shoes can soon rival, in the large manufacturing towns of England, those of British origin. Wool has already become an important article of export to England, and the increasing production here, and falling prices, make the enlarged market a matter of primary importance to our western farmers.

We have thus far touched upon the important features of the great change about to take place for good or for evil in the basis of commercial intercourse between two of the greatest commercial nations of modern times. The magnitude of the revolution, and the numerous and peaceful elements it calls into action, involving the social and political relations of two vast empires, may well cause the prudent merchant to pause, and the cautious banker to hesitate in his enterprises, until the new order of things shall have assumed form and feature, the new channels of trade become familiar to dealers, and former currents of the application of capital, if altered by new influences, dried up. That capital employed in many branches of industry will have to sustain severe competition from without, there is no doubt; and it will also come to be true, in this union of the material interests of England to those of the United States, that large capitals from abroad will be applied to the development of great natural wealth now lying dormant for the want of that capital. England has, of late years, for the want of sufficient means of employing her vast capital within her own pent-up island, been the banker or money-lender to the world. She has taken state promises and mortgages when she could get them, wherever civilization had formed communities, and existent industry gave hope of receiving back the loan with a round interest. By such a means, all countries became tributaries of their surplus earnings to swell the overgrown wealth of England, and the continuance of it would have made Ireland but a type of England's debtors. That system is drawing to a close, and instead of being loaned, capital will leave England for positive and permanent investment in those countries where liberty and sound laws afford scope for the prosecution of industry. This disposition has been checked of late years by the operation of the untoward results of former extravagance. The failure of the banks of the Union, followed necessarily by the dishonor of sovereign states, the bankrupt act, which barred the way to the collection of individual accounts, the stop and stay laws of many states, which sought to make landed property exempt from the demands of just creditors, and also the operation of usury laws, called into action by the revulsion which followed the contracts that infringed the laws, have all operated to impress practically upon the owners of capital in Europe, and upon those large houses who are, as it were, the reservoirs where such surplus capital is collected for employ, the idea of insecurity attached to moneyed transactions in these United States. These causes for distrust operate to an extent probably as great as fears of hostility, to prevent the free flow of funds from abroad into this country. In 1831-2, money in London became cheaper than in the rest of the large cities of the world, and at such a time the government of England entered upon the project of making a loan of some £15,000,000 for the emancipation of the blacks of the West Indies. This large sum the government sought, by allowing a discount on prompt payment, to procure the payment of in a few months; and the bank of England, to aid the government in that attempt, made loans with a freedom that it had never before manifested. Money became exceedingly cheap; and, as high confidence in foreign securities was then universally entertained, there existed no reason why the cheap money of England should not find its way to all countries where it was more valuable. That it did so in the case of the United States, the revulsion of 1836-7, and the large debts of all, and subsequent repudiation of some of the states, are melancholy evidences. Since then, steam, the great leveller, has brought the coffers of London within less than half the distance of the enterprise and industry of the United States, yet we have seen money in London for years at 1½ a 2 per cent per annum, and in New York, contemporaneously, 6 a 7 per cent per annum. Money which could not be employed in London at 2 per cent, could find ample security at a distance of 16 days, at 7 per cent per annum. Why this great disparity in price? No other article, neither cotton, flour, tobacco, nor any product of industry, could, for any length of time, exhibit such a disparity in value between places so near. Money, however, avoids places where it incurs risks so great as those which it

has unfortunately encountered upon this continent during the last few years. The backwardness of many of the states in making arrangements for the discharge of their debts, is a serious drawback on any disposition that might exist to renew confidence. The last legislature of Maryland, more particularly, has exerted a most unfavorable influence. Both the governor and the treasurer of that state pointed out in a clear manner the means by which a speedy resumption of the dividends upon the state debt might be effected. The existing taxation, with the improved revenues of the public works, would, by funding the arrearage interest, $1,200,000, due in July next, afford ample means to pay the whole annual charge, and leave a surplus to constitute a sinking fund. A bill to effect this was deliberately voted down, and another proposition to fix upon April, 1847, as the time of resumption, and authorizing the treasurer to sell the stocks owned by the state to effect it, after having passed the House of Delegates, was lost in the Senate, being a most deliberate refusal to appropriate available means to the payment of a just debt. Such a movement at this late day, coming from the Upper House of a state like Maryland, is anything but flattering to the national pride. The bill passed by the state of Indiana for the completion of her great canal, the Wabash and Erie, has not been accepted as yet by the bondholders; and, as it involves an objectionable principle, it may not be successful. This feature is, that the bondholders should surrender one-half of their bonds, and release the state faith from their payment, looking only to the success of the canal as a means of payment. The adoption of this, would be the first instance where creditors have formally acknowledged the bankruptcy of a sovereign state, and admitted a compromise. Michigan has passed through the Lower House a law by which a number of Boston gentlemen are incorporated as the "Michigan Central Railroad Company," with liberty to purchase the Central Railroad of the state for $2,000,000, payment to be made in the evidences of state indebtedness, including the bonds of the $5,000,000 loan, at the rate at which the state received payment on them.

The governor of the state of Mississippi also pointed the means by which ample funds for the resumption of the dividends on the Planters' bonds, so called, might be realized. The legislature has, however, failed to realize the expectations raised in the public mind by the message of the executive. The new-fledged confidence in the state of Pennsylvania has been somewhat chilled by the consequences of the great freshets, caused by the sudden and rapid thaw which set in, and did serious damage to the public works, involving not only great expenditures for repairs, but interrupting the navigation, by which means not only may the disbursements be enlarged, but the income diminished at that season of the year when the payment of the August dividends depends to a considerable extent upon the receipts. Up to this time, the extent of the damage has not been correctly ascertained, and the rumors may have greatly exaggerated the injuries. These events, added to the continued uncertainty in relation to political affairs, have had an injurious effect upon stocks. Considerable sums have been sent hither for sale from Europe, and among them even New York stocks. All apprehension of difficulty growing directly out of the Oregon matter has indeed subsided on this side of the Atlantic, but the Liverpool cotton market was, according to the accounts brought by the steamer of March 4, influenced to an advance by the advices of the Patrick Henry, which announced the rejection of arbitration. The military preparations of England continue on an extensive scale, and seemingly point to the progress of affairs in the Gulf of Mexico, as well as possible contingencies in France. The unfortunate condition of Mexico is such as to keep open the prospect of long-continued uneasiness on her account.

# COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

## VALUE OF NEW YORK STATE STOCKS.

PRESENT VALUE, AT THE FOLLOWING PERIODS IN 1846, OF NEW YORK STATE STOCKS, TO REALIZE 5 PER CENT INTEREST ON THE INVESTMENT—PREPARED EXPRESSLY FOR THE MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE, BY J. P. KENT.

| *Int'st.* | *Red'mable.* | *Payable.* | *March* 1. | *April* 1. | *May* 1. | *June* 1. | *July* 1. | *Aug.* 1. | *Sep.* 1. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 7 | July 1, 1848. | Q'rterly. | 105.62 | 104.30 | 104.74 | 105.18 | 103.85 | 104.30 | 104.73 |
| 7 | " 1849. | " | 107.36 | 106.07 | 106.51 | 106.95 | 105.64 | 106.08 | 106.52 |
| 6 | Jan. 1, 1851. | " | 105.41 | 104.33 | 104.76 | 105.20 | 104.13 | 104.56 | 104.99 |
| 6 | July 1, 1852. | Hf. y'ly. | 106.37 | 106.81 | 107.25 | 107.69 | 105.13 | 105.56 | 106. |
| 6 | " 1854. | Q'rterly. | 108. | 106.93 | 107.37 | 107.82 | 106.77 | 107.21 | 107.69 |
| 6 | " 1860. | " | 111.53 | 110.47 | 110.93 | 110.40 | 110.36 | 110.82 | 111.28 |
| 6 | Jan. 1, 1861. | " | 111.78 | 110.73 | 111.19 | 111.40 | 110.61 | 111.07 | 111.53 |
| 6 | Aug. 1, 1861. | Hf. y'ly. | 111.66 | 112.12 | 112.58 | 113.05 | 110.51 | 110.97 | 111.43 |
| 6 | Sept. 1, 1861. | Q'rterly. | 112.11 | 111.05 | 111.51 | 111.98 | 110.92 | 111.40 | 111.86 |
| 6 | Oct. 1, 1861. | " | 112.14 | 111.08 | 111.54 | 112.01 | 110.95 | 111.43 | 111.89 |
| 6 | Jan. 1, 1862. | " | 112.96 | 111.90 | 111.67 | 112.13 | 111.10 | 111.56 | 112.02 |
| 6 | July 1, 1862. | " | 112.49 | 111.44 | 111.90 | 112.37 | 111.33 | 111.79 | 112.26 |
| 6 | " 1867. | Hf. y'ly. | 114.02 | 114.49 | 114.96 | 115.44 | 112.91 | 113.38 | 113.85 |
| 5½ | " 1860. | Q'rterly. | 106.34 | 105.30 | 105.82 | 106.36 | 105.33 | 105.77 | 106.21 |
| 5½ | Aug. 1, 1860. | Hf. y'ly. | 106.01 | 106.44 | 106.88 | 107.32 | 105.01 | 105.44 | 105.88 |
| 5½ | Oct. 1, 1860. | Q'rterly. | 106.40 | 105.45 | 105.89 | 106.33 | 105.39 | 105.83 | 106.27 |
| 5½ | Jan. 1, 1861. | Hf. y'ly. | 106.11 | 106.54 | 106.98 | 107.42 | 105.11 | 105.55 | 105.98 |
| 5½ | " 1861. | Q'rterly. | 106.47 | 105.52 | 105.96 | 106.40 | 105.46 | 105.90 | 106.34 |
| 5½ | April 1, 1861. | " | 106.53 | 105.58 | 106.02 | 106.46 | 105.52 | 105.96 | 106.40 |
| 5½ | July 1, 1861. | " | 106.60 | 105.65 | 106.09 | 106.53 | 105.59 | 106.03 | 106.47 |
| 5½ | Jan. 1, 1865. | " | 107.40 | 106.45 | 106.89 | 107.34 | 106.41 | 106.85 | 107.29 |
| 5½ | July 1, 1865. | " | 107.50 | 106.55 | 106.99 | 107.44 | 106.51 | 106.95 | 107.40 |
| 5½ | " 1865. | Hf. y'ly. | 107.06 | 107.51 | 107.95 | 108.39 | 106.09 | 106.52 | 106.97 |
| 5 | Jan. 1, 1848. | Q'rterly. | 100.89 | 100.05 | 100.46 | 100.88 | 100.05 | 100.46 | 100.88 |
| 5 | July 1, 1849. | " | 100.93 | 100.09 | 100.50 | 100.92 | 100.09 | 100.50 | 100.92 |
| 5 | Aug. 1, 1850. | " | 100.95 | 100.11 | 100.52 | 100.94 | 100.11 | 100.52 | 100.94 |
| 5 | Jan. 1, 1851. | " | 100.97 | 100.13 | 100.54 | 100.96 | 100.13 | 100.54 | 100.96 |
| 5 | April 1, 1851. | " | 100.98 | 100.14 | 100.55 | 100.97 | 100.13 | 100.54 | 100.97 |
| 5 | Jan. 1, 1854. | " | 101.03 | 100.19 | 100.61 | 101.03 | 100.19 | 100.61 | 101.03 |
| 5 | July 1, 1856. | " | 101.09 | 100.25 | 100.66 | 101.08 | 100.94 | 100.66 | 101.08 |
| 5 | " 1858. | " | 101.13 | 100.98 | 100.70 | 101.12 | 100.98 | 100.70 | 101.12 |
| 5 | " 1859. | " | 101.14 | 100.29 | 100.71 | 101.13 | 100.99 | 100.71 | 101.13 |
| 5 | " 1860. | " | 101.16 | 100.31 | 100.73 | 101.14 | 100.31 | 100.73 | 101.15 |
| 5 | Jan. 1, 1861. | " | 101.17 | 100.32 | 100.74 | 101.15 | 100.32 | 100.74 | 101.16 |
| 5 | June 1, 1862. | " | 101.19 | 100.34 | 100.76 | 101.17 | 100.34 | 100.76 | 101.18 |
| 4½ | Jan. 1, 1850. | " | 99.13 | 98.40 | 98.81 | 99.22 | 98.50 | 98.91 | 99.32 |
| 4½ | " 1859. | " | 96.33 | 95.58 | 95.98 | 96.38 | 95.65 | 96.05 | 96.45 |
| 4½ | July 1, 1859. | " | 96.90 | 95.46 | 95.86 | 96.26 | 95.53 | 95.93 | 96.33 |
| 4½ | Oct. 1, 1859. | " | 96.14 | 95.40 | 95.80 | 96.20 | 95.47 | 95.87 | 96.27 |
| 4½ | Dec. 31, 1863. | " | 95.23 | 94.48 | 94.87 | 95.27 | 94.54 | 94.93 | 95.32 |

N. B.—A purchase at the above rates will produce 5 per cent on the amount laid out, until redemption. The interest accrued since the last payment is included in the above values. The quarterly stocks are, dividend off, on the 1st of April and 1st of July—the semi-annual, 1st July.

## VALUE OF NEW YORK CITY STOCKS.

PRESENT VALUE OF NEW YORK CITY STOCKS, AT THE FOLLOWING PERIODS IN 1846, TO REALIZE 5 PER CENT ON THE INVESTMENT.

| *Int'st.* | *Red'mable.* | *Payable.* | *March* 1. | *April* 1. | *May* 1. | *June* 1. | *July* 1. | *Aug.* 1. | *Sep.* 1. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 7 | Feb. 1, 1847. | Q'rterly. | 102.30 | 102.88 | 101.47 | 101.90 | 102.32 | 101. | 101.42 |
| 7 | " 1852. | " | 110.94 | 111.40 | 110.09 | 110.55 | 111.01 | 109.72 | 110.18 |
| 7 | Aug. 1, 1852. | " | 111.68 | 112.15 | 110.84 | 111.30 | 111.77 | 110.48 | 110.94 |
| 7 | Feb. 1, 1857. | " | 117.68 | 118.11 | 116.82 | 117.21 | 117.80 | 116.54 | 117.02 |
| 5 | Jan. 1, 1850. | " | 100.53 | 100.94 | 100.10 | 100.51 | 100.93 | 100.10 | 100.51 |
| 5 | Aug. 1, 1850. | " | 100.54 | 100.95 | 100.11 | 100.52 | 100.94 | 100.11 | 100.52 |
| 5 | Jan. 16, 1851. | Hf. y'ly. | 100.42 | 100.83 | 101.25 | 101.67 | 102.08 | 100. | 100.42 |
| 5 | May 6, 1856. | Q'rterly. | 100.66 | 101.07 | 100.23 | 100.65 | 101.06 | 100.23 | 100.65 |
| 5 | May 10, 1868. | Hf. y'ly. | 100.42 | 100.83 | 101.25 | 101.67 | 102.08 | 100. | 100.42 |
| 5 | Jan. 1, 1858. | Q'rterly. | 100.70 | 101.12 | 100.27 | 100.69 | 101.10 | 100.27 | 100.69 |
| 5 | " 1860. | " | 100.73 | 101.15 | 100.30 | 100.72 | 101.14 | 100.30 | 100.72 |
| 5 | Nov. 1, 1870. | " | 100.85 | 101.27 | 100.43 | 100.85 | 101.26 | 100.42 | 100.84 |
| 5 | " 1880. | " | 100.93 | 101.35 | 100.51 | 100.93 | 101.35 | 100.51 | 100.93 |

N. B.—The quarterly stocks are, dividend off, on the 1st of May and 1st of August.
The semi-ann. " " " 1st of August.

## COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES WITH THE WORLD.

We have compiled, from the report of the Secretary of the Treasury, the following tabular statement of the value of the export and import trade of the United States with the various countries and powers with which we have commercial intercourse, for the last 25 years :—

A STATEMENT

*Of the Value of Articles imported into, and exported from, the United States, designating the countries from which received, and to which the same were exported, from* 1821 *to* 1845, *inclusive.*

| | GR. BRITAIN AND DEPEND. | | FRANCE AND DEPENDENCIES. | | SPAIN AND DEPENDENCIES. | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Years. | Imported from. | Exported to. | Imported from. | Exported to. | Imported from. | Exported to. |
| 1821, | $29,277,938 | $26,522,572 | $5,900,581 | $6,474,718 | $9,653,728 | $7,209,275 |
| 1822, | 39,537,829 | 30,041,337 | 7,059,342 | 7,076,332 | 12,376,841 | 8,438,212 |
| 1823, | 34,072,578 | 27,571,060 | 6,605,343 | 9,568,924 | 14,233,590 | 10,963,398 |
| 1824, | 32,750,340 | 28,027,845 | 9,907,412 | 10,552,304 | 15,857,007 | 15,367,278 |
| 1825, | 42,394,812 | 44,217,525 | 11,835,581 | 11,891,326 | 9,566,237 | 5,921,549 |
| 1826, | 32,212,356 | 28,980,019 | 9,586,896 | 12,106,429 | 9,623,420 | 6,687,351 |
| 1827, | 33,056,374 | 32,870,465 | 9,448,562 | 13,565,356 | 9,100,369 | 7,321,991 |
| 1828, | 35,591,484 | 27,020,209 | 10,287,505 | 12,098,341 | 8,167,546 | 7,204,627 |
| 1829, | 27,582,082 | 28,071,084 | 9,616,970 | 12,832,304 | 6,801,374 | 6,888,094 |
| 1830, | 26,804,984 | 31,647,881 | 8,240,885 | 11,806,238 | 8,373,681 | 6,049,051 |
| 1831, | 47,956,717 | 39,901,379 | 14,737,585 | 9,882,679 | 11,701,201 | 5,661,420 |
| 1832, | 43,406,924 | 37,268,556 | 12,754,615 | 13,244,698 | 10,863,290 | 6,399,183 |
| 1833, | 43,085,865 | 39,881,486 | 13,962,913 | 14,424,533 | 13,431,207 | 6,506,041 |
| 1834, | 52,679,298 | 50,797,650 | 17,557,245 | 16,111,442 | 13,527,464 | 6,296,556 |
| 1835, | 65,949,307 | 60,107,134 | 23,362,584 | 20,335,066 | 15,617,140 | 7,069,279 |
| 1836, | 86,022,915 | 64,487,550 | 37,036,235 | 21,441,200 | 19,345,690 | 8,081,668 |
| 1837, | 52,289,557 | 61,218,813 | 22,497,817 | 20,255,346 | 18,927,871 | 7,604,002 |
| 1838, | 49,051,181 | 58,843,392 | 18,087,149 | 16,252,413 | 15,971,394 | 7,684,006 |
| 1839, | 71,600,351 | 68,169,082 | 33,234,119 | 18,924,413 | 19,276,795 | 7,724,429 |
| 1840, | 39,130,921 | 70,420,846 | 17,908,127 | 22,349,154 | 14,019,647 | 7,617,347 |
| 1841, | 51,099,638 | 62,376,402 | 24,187,444 | 22,235,575 | 16,316,303 | 7,181,409 |
| 1842, | 38,613,043 | 52,306,650 | 17,223,390 | 18,738,860 | 12,176,588 | 6,323,295 |
| 1843, | 28,978,582 | 46,901,835 | 7,836,137 | 12,472,453 | 6,980,504 | 3,953,694 |
| 1844, | 45,459,122 | 61,721,876 | 17,952,412 | 16,133,436 | 13,775,451 | 6,751,811 |
| 1845, | 49,903,725 | 61,044,535 | 22,069,914 | 16,143,994 | 10,590,544 | 7,790,442 |

STATEMENT—Continued.

| | NETHERLANDS AND DEPEND. | | SWEDEN AND DEPENDENC'S. | | DENMARK AND DEPEND. | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Years. | Imported from. | Exported to. | Imported from. | Exported to. | Imported from. | Exported to. |
| 1821, | $2,934,272 | $6,092,061 | $1,369,869 | $777,407 | $1,999,730 | $2,327,882 |
| 1822, | 2,708,162 | 5,801,639 | 1,544,907 | 921,434 | 2,535,406 | 2,434,046 |
| 1823, | 2,125,587 | 7,767,075 | 1,503,050 | 558,291 | 1,324,532 | 1,955,071 |
| 1824, | 2,355,525 | 3,617,389 | 1,101,750 | 569,428 | 2,110,666 | 2,183,252 |
| 1825, | 2,265,378 | 5,895,499 | 1,417,598 | 569,550 | 1,539,592 | 2,701,088 |
| 1826, | 2,174,181 | 4,794,070 | 1,292,182 | 358,380 | 2,117,164 | 2,412,875 |
| 1827, | 1,722,070 | 3,826,674 | 1,225,042 | 850,877 | 2,340,171 | 2,404,822 |
| 1828, | 1,990,431 | 3,083,359 | 1,946,783 | 1,106,954 | 2,374,069 | 3,348,167 |
| 1829, | 1,617,334 | 4,622,120 | 1,303,959 | 957,948 | 2,086,177 | 2,311,174 |
| 1830, | 1,356,765 | 4,562,437 | 1,398,640 | 961,729 | 1,671,218 | 2,014,085 |
| 1831, | 1,653,031 | 3,096,609 | 1,120,730 | 540,078 | 1,652,216 | 2,000,793 |
| 1832, | 2,358,474 | 6,035,466 | 1,150,804 | 515,140 | 1,182,708 | 2,207,551 |
| 1833, | 2,347,343 | 3,566,361 | 1,200,899 | 420,069 | 1,166,872 | 1,839,834 |
| 1834, | 2,127,886 | 4,578,739 | 1,126,541 | 494,741 | 1,684,368 | 1,857,114 |
| 1835, | 2,903,718 | 4,411,053 | 1,316,508 | 602,593 | 1,403,902 | 1,780,496 |
| 1836, | 3,861,514 | 4,799,157 | 1,299,603 | 700,386 | 1,874,340 | 2,122,469 |
| 1837, | 3,370,828 | 4,285,767 | 1,468,878 | 507,523 | 1,266,906 | 1,640,173 |
| 1838, | 2,194,238 | 3,772,206 | 900,790 | 355,852 | 1,644,865 | 1,299,927 |
| 1839, | 3,473,220 | 2,871,239 | 1,566,142 | 470,914 | 1,546,758 | 1,406,346 |
| 1840, | 2,326,896 | 4,546,085 | 1,275,458 | 652,546 | 976,678 | 1,193,500 |
| 1841, | 2,440,437 | 3,288,741 | 1,229,641 | 771,210 | 1,084,391 | 987,283 |
| 1842, | 2,214,520 | 4,270,770 | 914,176 | 477,965 | 584,321 | 1,047,673 |
| 1843, | 815,541 | 2,370,884 | 278,674 | 67,762 | 485,285 | 827,865 |
| 1844, | 2,136,386 | 3,453,385 | 445,553 | 295,345 | 630,510 | 963,156 |
| 1845, | 1,897,623 | 3,610,608 | 640,057 | 363,667 | 783,238 | 1,139,596 |

A STATEMENT

*Of the Value of Articles imported into, and exported from, the United States, from* 1821 *to* 1845, *inclusive*—Continued.

| Years. | PORTUGAL AND DEPEND. | | CHINA. | | HANSE TOWNS. | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Imp'd from. | Exp'ted to. | Imp'ted from. | Exported to. | Imp'd from. | Exp'ted to. |
| 1821, | $748,423 | $435,700 | $3,111,951 | $4,290,560 | $990,165 | $2,132,544 |
| 1822, | 861,290 | 427,491 | 5,242,536 | 5,935,368 | 1,578,757 | 2,505,015 |
| 1823, | 533,635 | 246,648 | 6,511,425 | 4,636,061 | 1,981,096 | 3,169,439 |
| 1824, | 601,722 | 518,836 | 5,618,502 | 5,301,171 | 2,527,830 | 1,863,273 |
| 1825, | 733,443 | 408,160 | 7,533,115 | 5,570,515 | 2,739,526 | 3,121,033 |
| 1826, | 765,203 | 313,553 | 7,422,186 | 2,566,644 | 2,816,545 | 2,116,697 |
| 1827, | 659,001 | 357,270 | 3,617,183 | 3,864,405 | 1,638,558 | 3,013,185 |
| 1828, | 433,555 | 291,614 | 5,339,108 | 1,482,802 | 2,644,392 | 2,995,251 |
| 1829, | 687,869 | 322,911 | 4,680,847 | 1,354,862 | 2,974,275 | 3,277,169 |
| 1830, | 471,643 | 279,799 | 3,878,141 | 742,193 | 1,873,278 | 2,274,880 |
| 1831, | 397,550 | 294,383 | 3,083,205 | 1,290,835 | 3,493,901 | 2,592,172 |
| 1832, | 485,264 | 296,218 | 5,344,907 | 1,260,522 | 2,865,096 | 4,088,212 |
| 1833, | 555,137 | 442,561 | 7,541,570 | 1,433,759 | 2,927,726 | 2,903,296 |
| 1834, | 699,122 | 392,496 | 7,892,327 | 1,010,483 | 3,255,856 | 4,659,674 |
| 1835, | 1,125,713 | 521,413 | 5,987,187 | 1,868,580 | 3,841,943 | 3,528,276 |
| 1836, | 672,670 | 191,007 | 7,324,816 | 1,194,264 | 4,994,890 | 4,363,882 |
| 1837, | 928,291 | 493,705 | 8,965,337 | 630,591 | 5,648,221 | 3,754,949 |
| 1838, | 725,058 | 232,131 | 4,764,586 | 1,516,602 | 2,847,358 | 3,291,645 |
| 1839, | 1,182,393 | 244,354 | 3,678,509 | 1,533,601 | 4,849,150 | 2,801,067 |
| 1840, | 599,894 | 321,256 | 6,640,829 | 1,009,966 | 2,521,493 | 4,198,459 |
| 1841, | 574,841 | 349,113 | 3,985,388 | 1,200,816 | 2,449,964 | 4,560,716 |
| 1842, | 347,684 | 302,964 | 4,934,645 | 1,444,397 | 2,274,019 | 4,564,513 |
| 1843, | 71,369 | 168,534 | 4,385,566 | 2,418,958 | 920,865 | 3,291,932 |
| 1844, | 257,015 | 252,170 | 4,931,255 | 1,756,941 | 2,136,386 | 3,566,687 |
| 1845, | 501,734 | 247,180 | 7,285,914 | 2,275,995 | 2,912,537 | 4,945,020 |

A STATEMENT

*Of the Value of Articles imported into, and exported from, the United States, from* 1821 *to* 1845, *inclusive*—Continued.

| Years. | RUSSIA. | | ITALY. | | HAYTI. | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Imp'ed from. | Exp'ted to. | Imp'd from. | Exported to. | Imp'ted from. | Exported to. |
| 1821, | $1,852,199 | $628,894 | $973,463 | $1,099,667 | $2,246,257 | $2,270,601 |
| 1822, | 3,307,328 | 529,081 | 1,562,033 | 1,450,184 | 2,341,817 | 2,119,811 |
| 1823, | 2,258,777 | 648,734 | 1,369,440 | 1,067,905 | 2,352,733 | 2,378,782 |
| 1824, | 2,209,663 | 231,981 | 1,029,439 | 664,348 | 2,247,235 | 2,365,155 |
| 1825, | 2,067,110 | 287,401 | 1,454,022 | 645,039 | 2,065,329 | 2,054,615 |
| 1826, | 2,617,169 | 174,648 | 1,120,749 | 530,221 | 1,511,836 | 1,414,494 |
| 1827, | 2,086,077 | 382,244 | 1,013,126 | 610,221 | 1,781,309 | 1,331,909 |
| 1828, | 2,788,362 | 450,495 | 1,607,417 | 920,750 | 2,163,585 | 1,332,711 |
| 1829, | 2,218,995 | 386,226 | 1,409,588 | 901,012 | 1,799,809 | 975,158 |
| 1830, | 1,621,899 | 416,575 | 940,254 | 740,360 | 1,597,140 | 823,178 |
| 1831, | 1,608,328 | 462,766 | 1,704,264 | 694,525 | 1,580,578 | 1,318,375 |
| 1832, | 3,251,852 | 582,682 | 1,619,795 | 687,563 | 2,053,386 | 1,669,009 |
| 1833, | 2,772,550 | 703,805 | 999,134 | 372,186 | 1,740,058 | 1,427,963 |
| 1834, | 2,595,840 | 330,694 | 1,422,063 | 493,557 | 2,113,717 | 1,436,952 |
| 1835, | 2,395,245 | 585,447 | 1,457,977 | 285,941 | 2,347,556 | 1,815,812 |
| 1836, | 2,778,554 | 911,013 | 1,970,246 | 664,059 | 1,828,019 | 1,240,039 |
| 1837, | 2,816,116 | 1,306,732 | 1,827,181 | 623,677 | 1,440,856 | 1,011,981 |
| 1838, | 1,898,396 | 1,048,289 | 944,238 | 459,893 | 1,275,762 | 910,255 |
| 1839, | 2,393,894 | 1,239,246 | 1,182,297 | 438,152 | 1,377,989 | 1,122,559 |
| 1840, | 2,572,427 | 1,169,481 | 1,157,200 | 1,473,185 | 1,252,824 | 1,027,214 |
| 1841, | 2,817,448 | 1,025,729 | 1,151,236 | 912,318 | 1,809,684 | 1,155,557 |
| 1842, | 1,350,106 | 836,593 | 987,528 | 820,517 | 1,266,997 | 899,966 |
| 1843, | 742,803 | 386,793 | 394,564 | 728,221 | 898,447 | 653,370 |
| 1844, | 1,059,419 | 555,414 | 1,096,926 | 576,823 | 1,441,244 | 1,128,356 |
| 1845, | 1,492,262 | 727,337 | 1,301,577 | 817,921 | 1,386,367 | 1,405,740 |

A STATEMENT

*Of the Value of Articles imported into, and exported from, the United States, from* 1821 *to* 1845, *inclusive*—Continued.

| Years. | MEXICO. Imp'ed from. | MEXICO. Exported to. | VENEZUELA, N. GRANADA, ECUADOR. Imp'ed from. | VENEZUELA, N. GRANADA, ECUADOR. Exported to. | CENT. AMERICA. Imp'ed from. | CENT. AMERICA. Exported to. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1821, | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... |
| 1822, | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... |
| 1823, | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... |
| 1824, | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... |
| 1825, | $4,044,647 | $6,470,144 | $1,837,050 | $2,239,255 | $56,789 | $99,522 |
| 1826, | 3,916,198 | 6,281,050 | 2,079,724 | 1,952,672 | 204,270 | 119,774 |
| 1827, | 5,231,867 | 4,173,257 | 1,550,248 | 944,534 | 251,342 | 224,772 |
| 1828, | 4,814,258 | 2,886,484 | 1,484,856 | 884,524 | 204,770 | 159,272 |
| 1829, | 5,026,761 | 2,331,151 | 1,255,310 | 767,348 | 311,931 | 239,854 |
| 1830, | 5,235,241 | 4,837,458 | 1,120,095 | 496,990 | 302,833 | 250,118 |
| 1831, | 5,166,745 | 6,178,218 | 1,207,154 | 658,149 | 196,504 | 306,497 |
| 1832, | 4,293,954 | 3,467,541 | 1,439,182 | 1,117,024 | 288,316 | 335,307 |
| 1833, | 5,452,818 | 5,408,091 | 1,524,622 | 957,543 | 267,740 | 575,016 |
| 1834, | 8,066,068 | 5,265,053 | 1,727,188 | 795,567 | 170,968 | 184,149 |
| 1835, | 9,490,446 | 9,029,221 | 1,662,764 | 1,064,016 | 215,450 | 183,793 |
| 1836, | 5,615,819 | 6,041,635 | 1,696,650 | 829,255 | 195,304 | 189,518 |
| 1837, | 5,654,002 | 3,880,323 | 1,567,345 | 1,080,109 | 163,402 | 157,663 |
| 1838, | 3,500,709 | 2,164,097 | 1,615,249 | 724,739 | 155,614 | 243,040 |
| 1839, | 3,127,153 | 2,787,362 | 2,073,216 | 750,785 | 192,845 | 216,242 |
| 1840, | 4,175,001 | 2,515,341 | 1,572,548 | 919,123 | 189,021 | 217,946 |
| 1841, | 3,284,957 | 2,036,620 | 2,156,121 | 872,937 | 186,911 | 149,913 |
| 1842, | 1,995,696 | 1,534,233 | 1,720,558 | 769,936 | 124,994 | 69,466 |
| 1843, | 2,782,406 | 1,471,937 | 1,307,013 | 745,455 | 132,167 | 52,966 |
| 1844, | 2,387,002 | 1,794,833 | 1,625,095 | 656,078 | 189,616 | 150,276 |
| 1845, | 1,702,936 | 1,152,331 | 1,440,196 | 804,107 | 65,269 | 67,649 |

STATEMENT—Continued.

| Years. | BRAZIL. Imp'd from. | BRAZIL. Exported to. | ARG. AND CISPLAT. REPUBLICS. Imp'd from. | ARG. AND CISPLAT. REPUBLICS. Exported to. | CHILI. Imp'd from. | CHILI. Exported to. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1821, | $605,126 | $1,381,760 | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... |
| 1822, | 1,486,567 | 1,463,929 | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... |
| 1823, | 1,214,810 | 1,341,390 | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... |
| 1824, | 2,074,119 | 2,301,904 | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... |
| 1825, | 2,156,707 | 2,393,754 | $749,771 | $573,520 | $229,509 | $921,438 |
| 1826, | 2,156,678 | 2,200,349 | 522,769 | 379,340 | 629,949 | 1,447,498 |
| 1827, | 2,060,971 | 1,863,806 | 80,065 | 151,204 | 184,693 | 1,702,601 |
| 1828, | 3,097,752 | 1,988,705 | 317,466 | 154,228 | 781,863 | 2,629,402 |
| 1829, | 2,535,467 | 1,929,927 | 915,190 | 626,052 | 416,118 | 1,421,134 |
| 1830, | 2,491,460 | 1,843,238 | 1,431,883 | 629,887 | 182,585 | 1,536,114 |
| 1831, | 2,375,829 | 2,076,095 | 928,103 | 659,779 | 413,758 | 1,368,155 |
| 1832, | 3,890,845 | 2,054,794 | 1,560,171 | 926,365 | 504,623 | 1,291,119 |
| 1833, | 5,089,693 | 3,272,101 | 1,377,117 | 699,728 | 334,130 | 1,463,949 |
| 1834, | 4,729,969 | 2,059,351 | 1,430,118 | 971,837 | 787,409 | 1,476,355 |
| 1835, | 5,574,466 | 2,608,656 | 878,618 | 708,918 | 917,095 | 941,884 |
| 1836, | 7,210,190 | 3,094,936 | 1,053,503 | 384,933 | 811,497 | 937,917 |
| 1837, | 4,991,893 | 1,743,209 | 1,000,002 | 273,872 | 1,180,156 | 1,487,799 |
| 1838, | 3,191,238 | 2,657,194 | 1,029,539 | 296,994 | 942,095 | 1,370,264 |
| 1839, | 5,292,955 | 2,637,485 | 1,150,546 | 465,363 | 1,186,641 | 1,794,553 |
| 1840, | 4,927,296 | 2,506,574 | 787,964 | 519,006 | 1,616,859 | 1,728,829 |
| 1841, | 6,302,653 | 3,517,273 | 1,957,747 | 818,170 | 1,230,980 | 1,102,988 |
| 1842, | 5,948,814 | 2,601,502 | 2,417,541 | 681,228 | 831,039 | 1,639,676 |
| 1843, | 3,947,658 | 1,792,288 | 915,241 | 557,234 | 857,556 | 1,049,463 |
| 1844, | 6,883,806 | 2,818,252 | 1,565,955 | 966,465 | 750,370 | 1,105,221 |
| 1845, | 6,084,599 | 2,837,950 | 1,771,271 | 660,142 | 1,123,690 | 1,548,191 |

TEXAS.—Imported from, in 1837, $163,384; 1838, $165,718; 1839, $318,116; 1840, $303,847; 1841, $395,026; 1842, $480,892; 1843, $445,399; 1844, $678,551; 1845, $755,324. Exported to, in 1837, $1,007,928; 1838, $1,247,880; 1839, $1,687,082; 1840, $1,218,271; 1841, $808,296; 1842, $406,929; 1843, $142,953; 1844, $277,548; 1845, $363,792.

## COTTON WOOL TRADE OF GREAT BRITAIN.

We have received the Cotton Circular of Messrs. Todd, Jackson & Co. of Liverpool, which furnishes several carefully compiled tabular statements of the import, export, consumption, &c., of cotton in Great Britain for a series of years, from which we have constructed the annexed tables.

"Of all the final measures," says the Liverpool circular, "which have distinguished our administration for years past, perhaps it would be difficult to point out one more politic, or of greater prospective advantage to the country, than the remission of the duty on raw cotton. The greater degree of intelligence which in these days is exercised in commercial pursuits, induces inquiries into the fundamental principles by which they should be regulated—by which solidity and permanency may be established in the great branches of national industry, and the natural advantages and characteristic ingenuity of the people developed to the greatest extent; one of the results of these inquiries is, that the impolicy of taxing the raw materials of manufactures, instead of being as formerly the subject of conflicting opinions, is now regarded as an established axiom. Cotton, beyond all other produce, (except food,) had claims to free and unrestricted admission, on account of the multitudes employed in the multifarious processes of its manufacture, whose chief hope of that employment being continuous and durable depended on our ability to compete with other nations. The salutary remission of duty on this important staple took place in the month of March—very little immediate effect was felt from it then, but the importance of such changes is not to be measured by momentary and transient fluctuations, but the solid advantages they confer in after times."

The following table shows the import of cotton into Great Britain, from 1836 to 1845, inclusive:—

GENERAL STATEMENT OF IMPORT INTO GREAT BRITAIN, DURING THE LAST TEN YEARS.

| YEARS. | Atlantic States. | N.Orleans, Mobile, &c. | Total U. States. | Brazil. | Demerara &Berbice. | W.Indies. | Egypt. | East Indies. | Grand Total. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1845,... | 495,672 | 881,222 | 1,499,594 | 110,176 | ..... | 8,814 | 89,007 | 155,140 | 1,855,731 |
| 1844,... | 493,697 | 735,776 | 1,229,473 | 112,228 | ..... | 17,410 | 67,033 | 230,761 | 1,656,905 |
| 1843,... | 489,110 | 907,461 | 1,396,571 | 98,726 | 114 | 19,509 | 46,506 | 181,992 | 1,743,418 |
| 1842,... | 346,057 | 672,671 | 1,018,728 | 85,655 | 135 | 19,778 | 18,245 | 255,129 | 1,397,668 |
| 1841,... | 277,214 | 624,978 | 902,192 | 90,637 | 295 | 34,366 | 40,054 | 274,984 | 1,342,528 |
| 1840,... | 434,642 | 810,365 | 1,245,007 | 83,991 | 517 | 24,789 | 37,112 | 216,495 | 1,607,911 |
| 1839,... | 347,111 | 466,504 | 813,125 | 97,656 | 1,494 | 36,583 | 31,576 | 131,731 | 1,112,165 |
| 1838,... | 451,009 | 673,183 | 1,124,192 | 137,499 | 1,880 | 30,318 | 28,461 | 108,879 | 1,431,229 |
| 1837,... | 327,739 | 517,449 | 845,188 | 116,605 | 2,436 | 27,652 | 39,329 | 145,063 | 1,176,273 |
| 1836,... | 384,183 | 381,053 | 765,236 | 148,093 | 3,167 | 32,586 | 32,946 | 219,157 | 1,201,185 |

STATEMENT OF STOCK OF COTTON AT THE CLOSE OF THE LAST SIX YEARS.

| DESCRIPTIONS. | *Total in the kingdom.* 1845. | 1844. | 1843. | 1842. | 1841. | 1840. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Sea Island,..... | | | 4,400 | 3,450 | 5,380 | 6,170 |
| Stained do.,..... | 180,800 | 145,821 | 800 | 1,080 | 1,240 | 490 |
| Upland,..... | | | 131,300 | 88,280 | 68,090 | 98,010 |
| Mobile and Alabama,..... | 512,300 | 396,041 | 119,200 | 53,380 | 56,500 | 62,830 |
| New Orleans,..... | | | 227,500 | 136,250 | 147,880 | 137,490 |
| Pernambuco, &c.,..... | 16,800 | 26,931 | ..... | 18,770 | 17,010 | 9,070 |
| Bahia and Maceio,..... | 11,800 | 11,810 | 68,300 | 10,870 | 8,530 | 5,670 |
| Maranham,..... | 23,700 | 23,890 | ..... | 27,850 | 18,940 | 7,760 |
| Peruvian,..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | 2,490 | 9,800 | 5,540 |
| Egyptian,..... | 67,900 | 41,383 | 28,000 | 21,720 | 30,910 | 21,810 |
| Surat and Madras,..... | 240,400 | 235,517 | 191,700 | 146,470 | 138,280 | 80,120 |
| Other descriptions,..... | 6,700 | 14,534 | 14,600 | 50,820 | 35,610 | 29,090 |
| Total,..... | 1,060,400 | 895,927 | 785,900 | 561,430 | 538,260 | 464,050 |

IMPORT OF COTTON WOOL INTO GREAT BRITAIN, FROM 1806 TO 1845, INCLUSIVE, BEING A PERIOD OF FORTY YEARS, DISTINGUISHING THE GROWTH.

| Years. | American. | Brazil. | Egyptian. | East India. | W. Ind., etc. | Total. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1806,..... | 124,939 | 51,034 | . .... | 7,787 | 77,978 | 261,738 |
| 1807,..... | 171,267 | 18,981 | ..... | 11,409 | 81,010 | 282,667 |
| 1808,..... | 37,672 | 50,442 | ..... | 12,512 | 67,512 | 168,138 |
| 1809,..... | 160,180 | 140,927 | ..... | 35,764 | 103,511 | 440,382 |
| 1810,..... | 246,759 | 142,846 | ..... | 79,382 | 92,186 | 561,173 |
| 1811,..... | 128,192 | 118,514 | ..... | 14,646 | 64,879 | 326,231 |
| 1812,..... | 95,331 | 98,704 | ..... | 2,607 | 64,563 | 261,205 |
| 1813,..... | 37,720 | 137,168 | ..... | 1,429 | 73,219 | 249,536 |
| 1814,..... | 48,853 | 150,930 | ..... | 13,048 | 74,800 | 287,631 |
| 1815,..... | 203,051 | 91,055 | ..... | 22,357 | 52,840 | 369,303 |
| 1816,..... | 166,077 | 123,450 | ..... | 30,670 | 49,235 | 369,432 |
| 1817,..... | 199,669 | 114,518 | ..... | 120,202 | 44,872 | 479,261 |
| 1818,..... | 207,580 | 162,499 | ..... | 247,659 | 50,991 | 668,729 |
| 1819,..... | 205,161 | 125,415 | ..... | 184,259 | 31,300 | 546,135 |
| 1820,..... | 302,395 | 180,086 | ..... | 57,923 | 31,247 | 571,651 |
| 1821,..... | 300,070 | 121,085 | ..... | 30,095 | 40,428 | 491,678 |
| 1822,..... | 329,906 | 143,505 | ..... | 19,263 | 40,770 | 533,444 |
| 1823,..... | 452,538 | 144,611 | 5,623 | 38,393 | 27,632 | 668,797 |
| 1824,..... | 282,371 | 143,310 | 38,022 | 50,852 | 25,537 | 540,092 |
| 1825,..... | 423,446 | 193,942 | 111,023 | 60,484 | 31,988 | 820,883 |
| 1826,..... | 395,852 | 55,590 | 47,621 | 64,699 | 18,188 | 581,950 |
| 1827,..... | 646,776 | 120,111 | 22,450 | 73,738 | 30,988 | 894,063 |
| 1828,..... | 444,390 | 167,362 | 32,889 | 84,855 | 20,056 | 749,552 |
| 1829,..... | 463,076 | 159,536 | 24,739 | 80,489 | 18,867 | 746,707 |
| 1830,..... | 618,527 | 191,468 | 14,752 | 35,019 | 11,721 | 871,487 |
| 1831,..... | 608,887 | 168,288 | 38,124 | 76,764 | 11,304 | 903,367 |
| 1832,..... | 628,766 | 114,585 | 41,183 | 109,298 | 8,490 | 902,322 |
| 1833,..... | 654,786 | 163,193 | 3,893 | 94,698 | 13,646 | 930,216 |
| 1834,..... | 733,528 | 103,646 | 72,077 | 89,098 | 17,485 | 951,034 |
| 1835,..... | 763,199 | 143,572 | 43,721 | 117,965 | 22,796 | 1,091,253 |
| 1836,..... | 764,707 | 148,715 | 34,953 | 219,493 | 33,506 | 1,201,347 |
| 1837,..... | 844,812 | 117,005 | 41,193 | 145,174 | 27,791 | 1,175,975 |
| 1838,..... | 1,124,800 | 135,500 | 29,700 | 107,200 | 29,400 | 1,426,600 |
| 1839,..... | 814,500 | 99,300 | 33,500 | 132,900 | 36,000 | 1,116,220 |
| 1840,..... | 1,237,500 | 85,300 | 38,000 | 216,400 | 22,300 | 1,599,500 |
| 1841,. ..... | 902,500 | 94,300 | 40,700 | 273,600 | 32,900 | 1,344,000 |
| 1842,..... .... | 1,013,400 | 87,100 | 19,600 | 255,500 | 17,300 | 1,392,900 |
| 1843,..... | 1,396,800 | 98,700 | 48,800 | 182,100 | 17,700 | 1,744,100 |
| 1844,..... | 1,246,900 | 112,900 | 66,700 | 237,600 | 17,500 | 1,681,600 |
| 1845,..... | 1,499,600 | 110,200 | 82,000 | 155,100 | 8,800 | 1,855,700 |

IMPORT OF COTTON WOOL INTO LIVERPOOL IN EACH YEAR, FROM 1791 TO 1845, INCLUSIVE, IN PACKAGES.

| Years. | Packages. | Years. | Packages. | Years. | Packages. | Years. | Packages. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1791, | 68,404 | 1805, | 177,508 | 1819, | 365,365 | 1833, | 840,953 |
| 1792, | 72,364 | 1806, | 173,074 | 1820, | 458,736 | 1834, | 841,474 |
| 1793, | 24,971 | 1807, | 196,467 | 1821, | 413,182 | 1835, | 970,717 |
| 1794, | 38,022 | 1808, | 66,215 | 1822, | 453,732 | 1836, | 1,023,587 |
| 1795, | 54,841 | 1809, | 267,283 | 1823, | 578,303 | 1837, | 1,036,005 |
| 1796, | 63,526 | 1810, | 320,594 | 1824, | 447,083 | 1838, | 1,328,415 |
| 1797, | 58,258 | 1811, | 174,132 | 1825, | 706,316 | 1839, | 1,019,229 |
| 1798, | 66,934 | 1812, | 171,551 | 1826, | 489,204 | 1840, | 1,415,341 |
| 1799, | 89,784 | 1813, | 141,188 | 1827, | 756,296 | 1841, | 1,164,269 |
| 1800, | 92,580 | 1814, | 182,626 | 1828, | 630,245 | 1842, | 1,249,811 |
| 1801, | 98,752 | 1815, | 270,635 | 1829, | 640,998 | 1843, | 1,557,597 |
| 1802, | 135,192 | 1816, | 276,715 | 1830, | 793,605 | 1844, | 1,490,984 |
| 1803, | 140,291 | 1817, | 314,181 | 1831, | 791,582 | 1845, | 1,652,731 |
| 1804, | 153,126 | 1818, | 425,344 | 1832, | 779,071 | | |

In 1785, the import into Liverpool from America was only 5 bags; in 1787, it was 108 bags.

EXPORT AND CONSUMPTION OF COTTON IN GREAT BRITAIN, FOR FOUR YEARS.

| | *Export.* | | | *Consumption.* | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1844. | 1843. | 1842. | 1845. | 1844. | 1843. | 1842. |
| American,..... | 76,650 | 52,350 | 62,000 | 1,269,808 | 1,099,830 | 1,114,772 | 918,978 |
| Brazil,..... | 2,100 | 1,300 | 3,450 | 113,984 | 115,697 | 80,444 | 68,415 |
| West India,... | 400 | 1,190 | 2,350 | 17,212 | 15,490 | 25,532 | 24,491 |
| Egyptian,..... | 300 | 200 | 100 | 55,124 | 54,155 | 40,300 | 27,175 |
| East India,.... | 70,550 | 61,160 | 70,100 | 98,176 | 120,388 | 111,384 | 156,299 |
| Total,..... | 150,000 | 116,200 | 138,000 | 1,574,304 | 1,405,560 | 1,372,432 | 1,195,358 |

PRICES OF COTTON AT LIVERPOOL.

| | 1845. | 1844. | | 1845. | 1844. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Orleans and Mobile—ord.. | 3½ *a* 3⅞ | 3½ *a* 3¾ | Sea Isl.—st. & n. gin'd. | 5 *a* 10 | 5 *a* 10 |
| Middling,..... | 4⅛ *a* 4¼ | 4 *a* 4⅛ | Ordinary,..... | 10½ *a* 11½ | 10 *a* 10½ |
| Fair,..... | 4⅛ *a* 4⅜ | 4⅛ *a* 4½ | Middling,..... | 12 *a* 12½ | 11 *a* 11½ |
| Good fair,..... | 5 *a* 5⅛ | 4⅜ *a* 5 | Fair,..... | 13½ *a* 14 | 12 *a* 12½ |
| Good,..... | 5½ *a* 6 | 5⅜ *a* 6 | Good fair,..... | 14½ *a* 15 | 13 *a* 14 |
| Choice gin marks,..... | 6⅛ *a* 7⅛ | 6½ *a* 7 | Good and fine,..... | 15½ *a* 24 | 14½ *a* 24 |
| Upland—ordinary,..... | 3½ *a* 3⅞ | 3⅜ *a* 3⅝ | Surat—ordinary,..... | 2⅝ *a* 2⅞ | 2⅜ *a* 2⅝ |
| Middling,..... | 3⅞ *a* 4 | 3½ *a* 4 | Middling,..... | 3 *a* 3⅛ | 2⅝ *a* 2⅞ |
| Fair,..... | 4⅛ *a* 4¼ | 4⅛ *a* 4¼ | Fair,..... | 3⅛ *a* 3⅜ | 3 *a* 3⅛ |
| Good fair,..... | 4¼ *a* 4⅜ | 4⅛ *a* 4¼ | Good fair,..... | 3⅜ *a* 3½ | 3⅛ *a* 3⅜ |
| Good,..... | 4⅜ *a* 5 | 4¼ *a* 5 | Good,..... | 3⅝ *a* 3¾ | 3⅜ *a* 3⅝ |

## FRENCH COTTON WOOL TRADE.

*Havre, January* 1, 1846.

STATEMENT OF IMPORTS, DELIVERIES AND STOCKS, FROM JAN. 1, TO DEC. 31, FOR TEN YEARS.

| | *Stock 1st of January.* | | *Imports.* | | *Deliveries.* | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Years. | U. States. | All Kinds. | U. States. | All Kinds. | U. States. | All Kinds. |
| 1845,.... | 48,300 | 53,000 | 320,927 | 330,592 | 319,227 | 332,292 |
| 1844,.... | 88,200 | 100,000 | 266,515 | 279,095 | 306,415 | 326,095 |
| 1843,.... | 101,400 | 110,000 | 303,327 | 325,297 | 312,038 | 330,373 |
| 1842,.... | 84,000 | 90,000 | 341,516 | 369,197 | 324,116 | 349,197 |
| 1841,.... | 75,000 | 80,000 | 341,463 | 357,383 | 332,463 | 347,383 |
| 1840,.... | 48,400 | 57,000 | 362,045 | 375,643 | 335,445 | 352,643 |
| 1839,.... | 30,500 | 33,700 | 227,778 | 264,168 | 209,888 | 240,868 |
| 1838,.... | 28,800 | 33,000 | 273,864 | 294,590 | 272,164 | 293,890 |
| 1837,.... | 34,300 | 45,500 | 221,317 | 248,859 | 226,817 | 261,359 |
| 1836,.... | 12,200 | 18,800 | 226,370 | 260,986 | 204,270 | 233,586 |

## IMPORTS OF AMERICAN COTTON INTO TRIESTE.

The United States Gazette furnishes us with an accurately prepared table of the imports of cotton at the port of Trieste, Austria, from the year 1831 to 1845, inclusive. The gradual yearly increase in the amount of cotton from the United States, must be a source of gratification to those who are interested in the trade with this important seaport of Austria.

IMPORT OF AMERICAN COTTON INTO TRIESTE, FROM 1831 TO 1845, INCLUSIVE.

| Years. | Bales imported from the United States. | Tot. bales import'd from all quarters. | Years. | Bales imported from the United States. | Tot. bales import'd from all quarters. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1831,..... | 7,729 | 66,196 | 1839,..... | 18,030 | 85,790 |
| 1832,..... | 6,762 | 89,991 | 1840,..... | 52,033 | 86,300 |
| 1833,..... | 4,941 | 64,938 | 1841,..... | 20,927 | 56,702 |
| 1834,..... | 13,488 | 54,537 | 1842,..... | 40,141 | 122,480 |
| 1835,..... | 17,892 | 80,676 | 1843,..... | 37,550 | 140,500 |
| 1836,..... | 23,450 | 126,898 | 1844,..... | 37,800 | 79,200 |
| 1837,..... | 20,871 | 95,557 | 1845,..... | 39,490 | 95,195 |
| 1838,..... | 20,702 | 108,057 | | | |

## PORK TRADE AND PORK PACKING IN THE WEST.

As there has been of late an unusual interest excited throughout the country, in regard to the hog-slaughtering and pork-packing of the great West, we give below a comparative statement of the business of the three last years, derived from a correspondent of the Philadelphia Commercial List. The writer alluded to took considerable trouble to ascertain the actual numbers cut and packed at different points; and, in the table below, gives the correct number of hogs cut and packed at fifty-three different towns. The hogs this season, in consequence of the farmers urging, or rather forcing the thing, much more than usual, to get their yearling hogs into market, (to obtain the high prices,) will average full 15 lbs. per hog lighter, throughout the country, than last season. This, on 800,000 hogs, (the supposed number generally packed throughout the West,) at an average of 225 lbs. per hog, would deduct from the excess 55,333 hogs. On the 1st day of December, 1844, as far as can be ascertained, there was full 125,000 bbls. of old pork in the United States, over the amount on hand at a similar date in 1845; say 50,000 bbls. in New York, 40,000 bbls. in all the other Eastern cities, and 35,000 bbls. at New Orleans, and all the different points throughout the West. This, with the excess of old lard and bacon at that time, would be fully equal to 300,000 hogs.

| | 1843-4. | 1844-5. | 1845-6. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Cincinnati, O., | 250,000 | 200,000 | 270,000 |
| Circleville, | 42,000 | 12,000 | 16,000 |
| Columbus, | 14,000 | 8,000 | 10,000 |
| Chillicothe, | 52,000 | 24,000 | 40,000 |
| Portsmouth, | 2,000 | 800 | 1,500 |
| Winchester, | 1,200 | 800 | ..... |
| Eaton, | 3,800 | 700 | 1,000 |
| Piqua, | 5,000 | 1,500 | 2,600 |
| Franklin, | 3,500 | 2,800 | 3,000 |
| Dayton, | 20,000 | 12,000 | 6,000 |
| Middleton, | 10,000 | 7,500 | 7,500 |
| Camden, | 8,000 | 7,000 | 8,000 |
| Hamilton, | 40,000 | 35,000 | 35,000 |
| Lebanon, | 5,000 | 4,000 | 4,000 |
| Lancaster, | 2,500 | 1,100 | 1,300 |
| Centerville, | 700 | 600 | 800 |
| Greenville, | 2,500 | 1,000 | 600 |
| New Paris, | 5,000 | 6,000 | 6,000 |
| Xenia, | 5,000 | 1,500 | 200 |
| Clarkesville, | 11,000 | 10,000 | 9,000 |
| Leesburgh, | ..... | 500 | ..... |
| Miamesburgh, | 1,800 | 1,500 | 1,000 |
| N. Burlington, | 2,400 | 1,700 | 2,000 |
| Ripley, | 10,000 | 10,000 | 12,000 |
| Springfield, | 6,000 | 5,000 | 1,000 |
| Lawrencebu'gh, Indiana, | 13,000 | 9,000 | 10,000 |
| Laurel, | 8,000 | 7,000 | 4,600 |
| Madison, | 45,000 | 50,000 | 50,000 |
| Richmond, | 5,000 | 800 | 1,000 |
| Centerville, Ia., | ..... | 1,600 | 1,800 |
| Brookville, | 8,500 | 6,000 | 7,000 |
| Economy, | 800 | 400 | 300 |
| Evansville, | 5,000 | 4,000 | 7,500 |
| Louisville, Ky., | 68,000 | 50,000 | 100,000 |
| Maysville, | 14,000 | 7,000 | 9,000 |
| Bowling Green, | 8,000 | 7,000 | 8,500 |
| Frankfort, | 11,000 | 10,000 | 4,500 |
| Alton, Ill., | 10,000 | 16,000 | 18,000 |
| St. Louis, Mo., | 16,000 | 13,000 | 17,000 |
| Hannibal, | 20,000 | 16,000 | 18,000 |
| La Groo, | 3,000 | ..... | 1,000 |
| Independence, | 600 | ..... | 500 |
| Fort Wayne, | 3,000 | 800 | 2,000 |
| Williamsport, | 4,500 | 2,000 | 2,400 |
| Newport, | 3,500 | 1,200 | 200 |
| Vincennes, | 6,000 | 3,000 | 5,000 |
| Attica, | 2,700 | 1,700 | 3,500 |
| Montezuma, | 7,000 | 1,000 | 1,000 |
| Terre Haute, | 27,000 | 18,000 | 20,000 |
| Delphi, | 7,000 | 2,000 | 6,000 |
| Crawfordsville, | 7,000 | ..... | 5,000 |
| Troy, | 4,000 | 1,000 | 2,000 |
| Lafayette, | 25,000 | 15,000 | 15,000 |
| | 856,000 | 593,500 | 758,100 |
| | | | 593,500 |
| | | | 164,600 |

Showing the whole matter to stand thus:—

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Old pork on hand last year, equal to | | 300,000 |
| Excess in the number of head of hogs cut in the 53 towns above named, (including all the most important points,) this year over last, | 164,600 | |
| Deduct for light weight, as per above, | 55,333 | |
| | | 109,267 |
| Total, | | 190,733 |

Thus, it will be seen very plainly that there must be an excess of full 190,733 head of hogs cut.

It is stated in Peabody's Weekly Markets, of Feb. 20th, 1846, that the number packed at Cincinnati during the last season has been largely augmented by a change of the direction of the hogs from Southern Kentucky, a large proportion of which were driven to the Ohio river this season, on account of the scarcity of corn on the southern route beyond the Cumberland Gap. Last year Cincinnati received from Kentucky about 45,000 head, and this year about 140,000, making the receipts of live hogs from other sources (Ohio and Indiana) actually less this season than last.

## IMPORT OF HIDES AT NEW YORK, 1845.

| From | Total. | From | Total. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Africa, | 42,029 | Maracaibo, | 3,187 |
| Angostura, | 77,009 | Para, | 8,741 |
| Buenos Ayres, | 36,259 | Rio Grande, | 174,640 |
| Calcutta, | 34,899 | Rio Grande—Horse, | 175 |
| Carthagena, | 40,732 | West Indies, | 9,791 |
| Chagres, | 5,865 | Southern States, | 51,635 |
| Central America, | 7,450 | San Juan, | 14,637 |
| Curacoa, | 2,650 | To dealers, sole leather hides only, | 121,022 |
| Honduras, | 780 | Coastwise, not enumerated above, | 33,224 |
| Laguayra and Porto Cabello, | 8,910 | | |
| Mexico and Texas, | 55,856 | Total—1845, | 776,640 |
| Montevideo, | 26,112 | 1844, | 854,790 |
| Maranham, | 22,037 | 1843, | 653,431 |

EXPORT OF HIDES FOR THE YEARS—

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1845, | 53,633 | 1842, | 31,286 |
| 1844, | 45,645 | 1841, | 4,245 |
| 1843, | 53,633 | 1840, | 31,325 |

## LIVERPOOL TOBACCO TRADE.

A COMPARATIVE STATEMENT OF THE STOCKS, IMPORTS AND DELIVERIES OF TOBACCO, IN LIVERPOOL, THE LAST TEN YEARS.

| | *Stock 1st January.* | | *Imports.* | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Years. | Stock. | Virginia. | N. Orleans. | Baltimore. | Other Ports. | Total. |
| 1836, | 8,878 | 6,693 | 3,430 | ..... | 141 | 10,264 |
| 1837, | 9,903 | 3,830 | 2,235 | ..... | 35 | 6,100 |
| 1838, | 5,690 | 5,535 | 2,515 | ..... | 298 | 8,348 |
| 1839, | 5,190 | 6,151 | 3,379 | 55 | 1,153 | 10,738 |
| 1840, | 7,233 | 6,665 | 3,834 | 13 | 209 | 10,721 |
| 1841, | 7,524 | 4,462 | 5,205 | 77 | 799 | 10,543 |
| 1842, | 9,553 | 5,178 | 7,580 | ..... | 371 | 13,129 |
| 1843, | 12,761 | 4,852 | 7,530 | ..... | 1,350 | 13,732 |
| 1844, | 15,444 | 4,804 | 6,976 | 47 | 614 | 12,441 |
| 1845, | 16,273 | 5,815 | 6,959 | ..... | 596 | 13,370 |

| | *Stock 31st December.* | | *Deliveries.* | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Years. | Stock. | Home Use. | Ireland. | Export. | Coastwise. | Total. |
| 1836, | 9,903 | 4,523 | 2,134 | 1,997 | 585 | 9,239 |
| 1837, | 5,690 | 4,450 | 2,624 | 2,115 | 1,121 | 10,313 |
| 1838, | 5,180 | 4,918 | 1,972 | 1,140 | 828 | 8,858 |
| 1839, | 7,233 | 4,503 | 2,080 | 1,423 | 879 | 8,685 |
| 1840, | 7,524 | 4,385 | 3,074 | 1,976 | 995 | 10,430 |
| 1841, | 9,553 | 3,789 | 2,626 | 1,227 | 872 | 8,514 |
| 1842, | 12,761 | 3,907 | 2,579 | 2,399 | 1,036 | 9,921 |
| 1843, | 15,444 | 4,777 | 2,761 | 2,100 | 1,411 | 11,049 |
| 1844, | 16,273 | 4,986 | 3,547 | 1,760 | 1,319 | 11,612 |
| 1845, | 17,302 | 4,377 | 3,406 | 2,048 | 2,510 | 12,341 |

ANNUAL SALES AND DISTRIBUTION OF TOBACCO.

The total annual sales, and their distribution for the last six years, were as follows:

| | 1845. | 1844. | 1843. | 1842. | 1841. | 1840. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| To manufacturers,..... | 5,994 | 5,450 | 5,726 | 4,981 | 4,142 | 5,913 |
| For Ireland and Scotland,..... | 5,324 | 4,214 | 2,886 | 2,951 | 2,944 | 2,858 |
| For exportation,..... | 2,199 | 1,934 | 2,327 | 2,871 | 1,707 | 1,721 |
| On speculation,..... | 907 | 1,447 | 1,800 | 690 | 1,028 | 1,149 |
| Total sales,..... | 14,424 | 13,045 | 12,739 | 11,493 | 9,821 | 11,632 |

PARTICULARS OF LEAF AND STEMMED, IMPORTED DURING THE LAST SEVEN YEARS, AND THE STOCK ON SALE AT THE CLOSE OF EACH YEAR.

*Imports.*

| | 1839. | 1840. | 1841. | 1842. | 1843. | 1844. | 1845. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Virginia leaf,..... | 3,521 | 3,739 | 3,606 | 2,605 | 1,105 | 968 | 1,862 |
| " stemmed,..... | 2,481 | 2,926 | 1,143 | 1,909 | 2,112 | 2,346 | 4,222 |
| Kentucky leaf,..... | 847 | 811 | 1,271 | 726 | 4,925 | 2,016 | 1,814 |
| " stemmed,..... | 3,144 | 3,023 | 4,488 | 6,979 | 1,902 | 4,055 | 5,472 |
| Other sorts,..... | 745 | 222 | 35 | 4 | ..... | 13 | ..... |
| Not sampled,..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | 906 | 3,688 | 2,143 | ..... |
| Total,..... | 10,738 | 10,721 | 10,543 | 13,129 | 13,732 | 11,541 | 13,370 |

*Stocks on Sale.*

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Virginia leaf,..... | 1,074 | 1,929 | 2,800 | 1,744 | 1,618 | 1,321 | 1,596 |
| " stemmed,..... | 2,076 | 2,023 | 1,012 | 952 | 1,788 | 2,353 | 3,213 |
| Kentucky leaf,..... | 194 | 239 | 725 | 261 | 3,015 | 3,819 | 2,921 |
| " stemmed,..... | 2,080 | 1,333 | 3,215 | 6,657 | 3,712 | 5,402 | 5,042 |
| Not yet sampled,..... | 171 | 43 | 35 | 20 | ..... | 8 | 4,530 |
| Total,..... | 5,595 | 5,567 | 7,787 | 9,634 | 10,133 | 12,903 | 17,302 |

| | 1845. | 1844. | 1843. | 1842. | 1841. | 1840. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Stock in London, 31st Dec.. | 27,300 | 31,700 | 30,000 | 19,400 | 19,778 | 12,900 |
| Liverpool,..... | 17,302 | 16,273 | 15,444 | 12,761 | 9,553 | 7,524 |
| Bristol, Hull & Newcastle, | 1,738 | 1,500 | 1,600 | 1,750 | 1,435 | 1,100 |
| Scotland,..... | 1,300 | 1,200 | 1,500 | 1,540 | 1,450 | 1,200 |
| Ireland,..... | 2,350 | 2,000 | 1,800 | 1,800 | 1,450 | 1,400 |
| Total in Great Britain,..... | 49,990 | 52,673 | 50,344 | 37,251 | 33,666 | 24,124 |

PRICES CURRENT OF TOBACCO, AT LIVERPOOL, DECEMBER 31, 1843, 1844, 1845.

| | | 1845. | 1844. | 1843. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Virginia Leaf— | Ordinary and faded,..... | 2 *a* 2¼ | 1½ *a* 2 | 2 *a* 2½ |
| | Ordinary sound,..... | 2¼ *a* 3½ | 2½ *a* — | 3 *a* — |
| | Fair leafy,..... | 4 *a* 4½ | 3½ *a* — | 3½ *a* 4¼ |
| | Good substance,..... | 4½ *a* 5 | 4 *a* 4½ | 4½ *a* — |
| | Fine Irish,..... | 5½ *a* — | 4½ *a* 5 | 5 *a* 5½ |
| Stemmed— | Ordinary short,..... | 3½ *a* — | 3 *a* 3¼ | 3½ *a* — |
| | Fair dry leafy,..... | 4 *a* 4½ | 4 *a* — | 4 *a* 4½ |
| | Good do..... | 5 *a* 5½ | 4½ *a* 5 | 5 *a* — |
| | Fine Irish,..... | 6 *a* 6½ | 5½ *a* 6 | 5½ *a* 6½ |
| | Do. butted,..... | 6½ *a* — | 6 *a* — | 6½ *a* 7 |
| Western Leaf— | Ordinary,..... | 2 *a* 2½ | 2 *a* — | 2 *a* — |
| | Middling,..... | 3 *a* — | 2¼ *a* 2¾ | 2½ *a* 3 |
| | Fine dry,..... | 3½ *a* 4 | 3 *a* 3½ | 3½ *a* 4 |
| Stemmed— | Ordinary,..... | 3¾ *a* 4 | 3¾ *a* 4 | 4 *a* — |
| | Middling,..... | 4¼ *a* 4½ | 4¼ *a* — | 4½ *a* — |
| | Fine,..... | 4¾ *a* 5 | 4½ *a* 5 | 5 *a* 5½ |

The foregoing statistics of the Tobacco trade are derived from the Circular of Messrs. John and William Oxley & Co., dated Liverpool, January 3, 1846.

"There is not the smallest change in the aspect of our Tobacco market, (says the Circular,) since our report on the 3d ultimo. The sales of the month, amounting altogether to about 1,100 hogsheads, have resulted from a moderate steady inquiry from the ordinary channels of consumption, unaided by any speculative movement whatever, at prices in accordance with our recent quotations. These will be found to vary but little from the

rates current twelve months ago, except in the case of Virginia Leaf, which is to be accounted for by its superior quality—the Western Tobacco, on the other hand, although of a good color, we consider unequal to that of the previous crop, whilst the assortment of strips made from it, so far as we have seen, contains an unusually large proportion of only middle and common quality."

## PASSAGES OF THE NEW YORK PACKET SHIPS.

STATEMENT OF THE HOMEWARD PASSAGES OF THE NEW YORK PACKET SHIPS FROM LIVERPOOL, FROM FEBRUARY, 1845, TO MARCH, 1846—ONE YEAR.

| Ships. | S'led from Liverpool. 1845. | Arr'd at N. York. 1845. | Da. on Pass. |
|---|---|---|---|
| New York, | Feb. 4 | Mar. 23 | 47 |
| Liverpool, | 7 | 23 | 44 |
| Siddons, | 11 | 24 | 41 |
| Columbus, | 18 | 31 | 41 |
| Ashburton, | 25 | 30 | 33 |
| S. Whitney, | 28 | 30 | 30 |
| Yorkshire, | Mar. 4 | 25 | 21 |
| Q'n of the West, | 7 | Ap. 1 | 25 |
| Sheridan, | 13 | 18 | 36 |
| Cambridge, | 19 | 28 | 40 |
| Patrick Henry, | 23 | 23 | 31 |
| Empire, | 31 | 29 | 29 |
| Oxford, | Ap. 3 | May 2 | 29 |
| Rochester, | 9 | 14 | 35 |
| Garrick, | 12 | 18 | 36 |
| Indiana, | 17 | 18 | 31 |
| Geo. Washington, | 22 | 28 | 36 |
| Virginian, | 28 | 30 | 32 |
| Montezuma, | May 5 | June 2 | 28 |
| Hottinguer, | 6 | 4 | 29 |
| Roscius, | 14 | 17 | 34 |
| Europe, | 18 | 23 | 36 |
| Independence, | 22 | 24 | 33 |
| Waterloo, | 26 | 26 | 31 |
| Ashburton, | June 1 | July 5 | 34 |
| New York, | 1 | 7 | 36 |
| Liverpool, | 7 | 14 | 37 |
| Siddons, | 12 | 20 | 38 |
| Columbus, | 18 | Aug. 3 | 46 |
| Henry Clay, | 23 | July 27 | 34 |
| S. Whitney, | 26 | 31 | 35 |
| Yorkshire, | July 2 | July 30 | 28 |
| Q'n of the West, | 7 | Aug. 14 | 38 |
| Sheridan, | 12 | 16 | 35 |
| Cambridge, | 18 | 19 | 32 |
| Patrick Henry, | 22 | 21 | 30 |
| Virginian, | 29 | 29 | 31 |

| Ships. | S'led from Liverpool. 1845. | Ar. at N. Y. 1845. | Da. on Pass. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Oxford, | Aug. 2 | Aug. 29 | 27 |
| Rochester, | 11 | Sep. 7 | 27 |
| Garrick, | 12 | 7 | 26 |
| Montezuma, | 16 | 15 | 30 |
| Independence, | 22 | 22 | 31 |
| Waterloo, | 29 | 26 | 28 |
| Fidelia, | Sept. 2 | Oct. 1 | 29 |
| Hottinguer, | 6 | 11 | 35 |
| Roscius, | 12 | 11 | 29 |
| Europe, | 20 | 18 | 28 |
| Ashburton, | 22 | 16 | 24 |
| John R. Skiddy, | Oct. 2 | Nov. 1 | 30 |
| New York, | 2 | 2 | 31 |
| Liverpool, | 7 | 8 | 32 |
| Siddons, | 13 | 16 | 34 |
| Shenandoah, | 22 | Dec. 3 | 42 |
| Henry Clay, | 23 | Nov. 26 | 34 |
| S. Whitney, | 29 | Dec. 3 | 35 |
| Yorkshire, | Nov. 2 | 1 | 29 |
| Q'n of the West, | 7 | 5 | 28 |
| Sheridan, | 12 | 19 | 37 |
| Cambridge, | 21 | 27 | 36 |
| Patrick Henry, | 23 | 25 | 32 |
| | | 1846. | |
| Virginian, | Dec. 6 | Jan. 28 | 53 |
| Oxford, | 6 | 15 | 40 |
| Rochester, | 8 | 16 | 39 |
| Garrick, | 13 | 24 | 42 |
| Montezuma, | 17 | 25 | 39 |
| Independence, | 24 | Feb. 10 | 48 |
| Waterloo, | 29 | 5 | 38 |
| | 1846. | | |
| Fidelia, | Jan. 2 | Feb. 22 | 51 |
| Hottinguer, | 7 | Mar. 6 | 58 |
| Roscius, | 13 | 7 | 53 |
| Europe, | 16 | 7 | 50 |
| Ashburton, | 23 | 5 | 41 |

## COMMERCE OF AMSTERDAM.

The commerce of Amsterdam has increased in a very remarkable manner. In 1844, the number of vessels that arrived by sea was 1,843, whilst in 1845 it was 2,319. All the exportations increased very considerably, especially of refined sugar, of which the quantity was 41,800,000 lbs.; or 7,250,000 lbs. more than in 1844. In 1845, the importation of cotton, chiefly from the United States, was 22,323 bales, or double what it was in 1844. The increase is owing to the vast development which the neighboring town of Harlem has taken as a manufacturing place.

## ANTHRACITE COAL TRADE OF PENNSYLVANIA.

**The following table exhibits the quantity of Anthracite Coal sent to market from the different regions in Pennsylvania, from the commencement of the trade, in 1820, to 1845, inclusive, with the annual increase, consumption, etc.**

| Years. | SCHUYLKILL. | | | LEHIGH. | OTHER REGIONS. | | | | Aggregate. | Annual increase. | Cons'mption. | Unsold April 1. | Sold on Canal and Railroad. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Canal. | Railroad. | Total. | Total. | Lackawanna. | Pinegrove. | Shamokin. | Wilkesbarre. | | | | | |
| 1820, | | | | 365 | | | | | 365 | | | | |
| 1821, | | | | 1,073 | | | | | 1,073 | 708 | | | |
| 1822, | | | | 2,240 | | | | | 2,240 | 1,167 | | | |
| 1823, | | | | 5,823 | | | | | 5,823 | 3,583 | | | |
| 1824, | | | | 9,541 | | | | | 9,541 | 3,718 | | | |
| 1825, | 6,500 | | 6,500 | 28,393 | | | | | 34,893 | 25,352 | | | |
| 1826, | 16,767 | | 17,767 | 31,280 | | | | | 48,047 | 13,154 | | | 3,154 |
| 1827, | 31,360 | | 31,360 | 32,074 | | | | | 63,434 | 15,837 | | | 3,372 |
| 1828, | 47,284 | | 47,284 | 30,232 | | | | | 77,516 | 14,082 | | | 3,332 |
| 1829, | 79,973 | | 79,973 | 25,110 | 7,000 | | | | 112,083 | 34,567 | | | 5,321 |
| 1830, | 89,984 | | 89,984 | 41,750 | 43,000 | | | | 174,734 | 62,651 | | | 6,150 |
| 1831, | 81,854 | | 81,854 | 40,966 | 54,000 | | | | 176,820 | 2,086 | 177,000 | | 10,048 |
| 1832, | 209,271 | | 209,271 | 70,000 | 84,600 | | | | 363,871 | 187,051 | 298,871 | None. | 13,429 |
| 1833, | 252,971 | | 252,971 | 123,000 | 111,777 | | | | 487,748 | 123,877 | 434,986 | 65,000 | 19,429 |
| 1834, | 226,692 | | 226,692 | 106,244 | 43,700 | | | | 376,636 | Decrease. | 415,186 | 117,762 | 18,571 |
| 1835, | 339,508 | | 339,508 | 131,250 | 90,000 | | | | 560,758 | 184,122 | 635,935 | 79,212 | 17,863 |
| 1836, | 432,045 | | 432,045 | 146,522 | 103,861 | | | | 682,428 | 121,670 | 632,428 | 4,035 | 21,749 |
| 1837, | 523,152 | | 523,152 | 225,937 | 115,387 | 17,000 | | | 881,476 | 199,048 | 680,441 | 54,035 | 28,775 |
| 1838, | 433,875 | | 433,875 | 214,211 | 78,207 | 13,000 | | | 739,293 | Decrease. | 788,968 | 255,070 | 30,390 |
| 1839, | 442,608 | | 442,608 | 221,850 | 122,300 | 20,639 | 11,930 | | 819,327 | 80,034 | 867,000 | 205,395 | 28,924 |
| 1840, | 452,291 | | 452,291 | 225,288 | 148,470 | 23,860 | 15,505 | | 865,414 | 46,087 | 973,136 | 157,622 | 41,223 |
| 1841, | 584,692 | | 584,692 | 142,821 | 192,270 | 17,653 | 21,463 | | 958,899 | 93,485 | 958,899 | 100,000 | 40,584 |
| 1842, | 491,602 | 49,290 | 540,892 | 272,129 | 205,253 | 32,381 | 10,000 | 47,346 | 1,108,001 | 149,102 | 1,158,001 | 100,000 | 34,619 |
| 1843, | 447,058 | 230,237 | 677,295 | 267,734 | 227,605 | 22,905 | 10,000 | 58,000 | 1,263,539 | 155,538 | 1,263,539 | 50,000 | 60,000 |
| 1844, | 398,443 | 441,491 | 839,934 | 377,821 | 251,005 | 34,916 | 13,087 | 114,906 | 1,631,669 | 368,130 | 1,631,669 | 50,000 | 90,000 |
| 1845, | 263,559 | 820,237 | 1,083,796 | 432,080 | 269,469 | 47,928 | 10,000 | 178,401 | 2,021,674 | 390,005 | | 50,000 | |
| Total, | 5,851,489 | 1,541,255 | 7,392,744 | 3,205,734 | 2,144,904 | 233,282 | 81,985 | 398,652 | 13,467,302 | | | | |

In 1820, only 365 tons were sent to market. In 1830, the quantity had reached 174,734 tons; in 1840, 865,414; and in 1845, 2,021,674 tons. By this statement, it will be observed that the trade has more than doubled within the last five years.

The Pottsville Miners' Journal furnishes us with the following official summary statement of coal sent to market from the different regions in 1845, compared with 1844:—

| Schuylkill. | 1845. | 1844. | Increased. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Railroad,.....tons | 820,237 | 441,491 | 378,746 |
| Canal,..... | 263,559 | 398,443 | Decrease. |
| | 1,083,796 | 839,934 | 243,862 |
| Lehigh,..... | 432,030 | 377,821 | 54,259 |
| Lackawanna,..... | 269,469 | 251,005 | 18,461 |
| Wilkesbarre,..... | 178,401 | 114,906 | 63,495 |
| Pinegrove,..... | 47,928 | 34,916 | 13,012 |
| Shamokin,..... | 10,000 | 13,087 | ..... |
| | 2,021,674 | 1,631,669 | |
| | 1,631,669 | | |
| Increase in 1845,..... | 390,005 | | |

The Schuylkill region still maintains the position she has held since 1832, in furnishing more than one-half the supply of anthracite coal sent to market. Since the trade commenced, in 1820, up to the beginning of 1846, the supply from all sources amounted to 13,467,302 tons.

| | |
|---|---|
| Of this quantity, the Schuylkill region furnished..... | 7,392,744 tons. |
| All other regions, only..... | 6,074,558 |
| In favor of the Schuylkill region,..... | 1,318,186 |
| During the last year, our county furnished..... | 1,131,722 |
| All other counties, only..... | 880,952 |
| Excess in favor of Schuylkill county,..... | 250,770 |

The following is the quantity of coal transported over the different railroads in Schuylkill county, during the years 1844 and 1845:—

| | 1844. | 1845. | Increase. |
|---|---|---|---|
| West Branch,..... | 334,027 | 442,220 | 108,193 |
| Mount Carbon,..... | 202,742 | 257,457 | 54,715 |
| Schuylkill Valley,..... | 109,865 | 128,448 | 18,883 |
| Mill Creek,..... | 75,636 | 109,828 | 34,192 |
| Little Schuylkill,..... | 56,669 | 74,850 | 18,181 |
| Lorberry Creek,..... | 34,916 | 47,928 | 12,012 |
| | 813,855 | 1,060,731 | |
| | | 813,855 | |
| Increase in 1845,..... | | 246,876 | |

The transportation of coal on the Schuylkill Valley Railroad did not commence until the 1st of June—and there was also about five weeks' interruption to the trade on the Mill Creek Railroad.

The operators engaged in this region, who send coal to market, number about 100. Of this number, 27 shipped upwards of 10,000 tons, 41 upwards of 5,000, and the balance less than 5,000.

| | |
|---|---|
| On the West Branch, there are operators..... | 35 |
| Schuylkill Valley,..... | 32 |
| On Mount Carbon Road,..... | 26 |
| Mill Creek,..... | 7 |
| Total,..... | 100 |

As the expenses of mining increase, the number of shipping operators decrease—the smaller find it their interest to sell the coal at the mouth of the mines to the larger operators.

## BRITISH MANUFACTURES EXPORTED TO THE UNITED STATES.

We have compiled, from British official documents, the following table of the export of the chief articles of British manufacture from the ports of London, Liverpool, Bristol, Hull, and the Clyde, to the United States, from the 1st of January to the 28th of December, 1845, compared with the same periods of 1844. The third and fourth columns give the total quantity or value* exported to the various markets of the world, embracing fifty-four countries or ports. The first and second columns exhibit the exports to the United States, thus showing the proportion of British manufactures exported to this country.

| | EXPORTS TO U. STATES. | | TOT. EX. TO ALL COUNTRIES. | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1844. | 1845. | 1844. | 1845. |
| Cotton twist and yarn,.....lbs. | 49,483 | 86,685 | 136,195,076 | 132,453,425 |
| Thread and sewing,..... | 597,133 | 455,784 | 3,242,170 | 3,412,718 |
| Plain calicoes,.....yards | 9,784,857 | 13,328,716 | 618,418,520 | 656,011,909 |
| Printed dyed calicoes,..... | 12,565,826 | 15,565,413 | 349,497,419 | 360,220,460 |
| Cambrics, muslins, lawns, and lenos,. | 607,312 | 1,034,216 | 3,734,131 | 5,643,365 |
| Other plain cotton goods,..... | 328,771 | 400,809 | 3,786,050 | 3,846,608 |
| Lace, gauze, etc.,..... | 6,447,252 | 7,017,520 | 87,344,498 | 96,403,712 |
| Counterpanes and quiltings,.....No. | 25,882 | 25,963 | 95,947 | 161,245 |
| Cotton hosiery, caps and gloves,...doz. | 101,046 | 82,623 | 377,553 | 519,046 |
| Cotton shawls and handkerchiefs, pl'n and printed,.....doz. | 106,675 | 101,411 | 650,516 | 738,657 |
| Tapes, bobbins, etc.,..... | 1,834 | 398 | 19,355 | 14,981 |
| Cotton and linen cloths, mixed,...yds. | 289,373 | 187,899 | 1,300,983 | 1,438,032 |
| Cotton goods unenumerated,.....£ | 30,665 | 52,224 | 143,612 | 190,747 |
| Linens, British and Irish,.....yards | 21,711,973 | 22,955,129 | 60,561,569 | 66,549,916 |
| Woollen and worsted yarns,.....lbs. | 115,894 | 421,102 | 7,544,441 | 8,431,172 |
| Woollens and cottons, mixed,.....£ | 591,679 | 529,583 | 1,200,431 | 1,246,431 |
| Kerseymeres,.....£ | 19,608 | 14,058 | 267,571 | 77,654 |
| Long and short cloths,.....£ | 13,266 | 6,902 | 337,516 | 325,958 |
| Stuffs, woollen and worsted,.....£ | 1,195,187 | 755,656 | 4,793,354 | 4,317,964 |
| Heavy woollens,.....£ | 42,256 | 31,796 | 229,342 | 377,758 |
| Shawls, (woollen,).....£ | 32,880 | 40,351 | 112,586 | 146,518 |
| Flannels and blanketing,.....£ | 197,022 | 107,815 | 359,123 | 309,282 |
| Hosiery, woollen and worsted,.....£ | 68,636 | 56,341 | 162,607 | 161,775 |
| Woollens, unenumerated,.....£ | 34,051 | 38,647 | 158,916 | 301,658 |
| Total of woollens,.....£ | 2,194,676 | 1,581,299 | 7,621,359 | 7,264,998 |
| Silks, and silk and cotton, and silk and worsted, mixed,.....lbs. | 51,929 | £135,889 | 104,970 | 14,981 |

## KEY WEST, AND WRECKING FOR SALVAGE.

Key West, the capital of Monroe County, Florida, is situated on the northwest end of Thompson's Island, and is four miles long and one wide. It is one of the Florida keys, has a fine harbor, admitting vessels requiring 27 feet of water, and capable of being well fortified. The passage here is safer, and is 90 miles nearer the Gulf of Mexico, than round the Tortugas. The town of Key West contains a population of about 1400 souls, who derive their livelihood mainly from the profits of wrecking, fishing, and the manufacture of salt, (about 25,000 bushels of which are manufactured annually, by solar evaporation,) general trade, commerce, and other employments growing out of these. Three hundred and forty-nine vessels, with an aggregate tonnage of 25,970, and 2,100 men, entered and cleared at Key West during 1845. It possesses one Episcopalian, and one Methodist church, with Sunday-schools, all of which are well attended. It has several day-schools and boarding-houses.

We learn from the special agent of the New York and New Orleans underwriters at Key West, that the whole amount of the value of vessels and cargo, wrecked and in distress on the Florida Reef, during the year ending the 31st December, 1845, was $737,000; the whole amount of salvage awarded was $69,592; and the whole amount of salvages,

* When the value is given, it is denoted by the British sterling £ mark.

wharfages, storages, repairs, labor-fees of officers of the court, and all other expenses, was $105,706. During the year previous to the last, the whole amount of property wrecked and in distress, was $725,000, the salvage was $92,712, and the salvage and all other expenses and charges were $169,064, including about $6,000 for duties. During the year 1845, a larger amount of property was saved than during the year previous, although the sum paid for saving is $23,120 less. There are employed in cruising and saving this property, about fifteen regular licensed vessels, with crews averaging about ten men each, besides several fishing-smacks and small boats occasionally employed. The salvages are decided by the court established at Key West for that purpose, and each vessel engaged in the business of wrecking is licensed by the judge. The utmost good faith and good conduct on the part of the wreckers is required of them by the court; and embezzlement of cargo, or other misconduct, being always followed by a forfeiture of salvage, has lately been of rare occurrence.

SALVAGES DECREED AND AWARDED SINCE 1831.

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1831,..... | $39,487 | 1836,..... | $174,132 | 1841,..... | $71,173 |
| 1832,..... | 46,555 | 1837,..... | 107,495 | 1842,..... | 38,163 |
| 1833,..... | 38,198 | [1838,..... | 34,578 | 1843,..... | 89,811 |
| 1834,..... | 32,040 | 1839,..... | 90,797 | 1844,..... | 92,712 |
| 1835,..... | 87,240 | 1840,..... | 85,113 | 1845,..... | 69,592 |

# COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

## CIRCULAR OF INSTRUCTIONS TO COLLECTORS OF CUSTOMS.

GOODS IMPORTED IN LARGE BALES, AND ENTERED FOR EXPORTATION.

R. J. WALKER, Secretary of the Treasury, under date Washington, February 25, 1846, has addressed the following circular of instructions to the collectors of the principal ports of the United States:

"In consequence of representations made to the department, of the inconvenience and expense to which exporters are subjected in the transportation of certain descriptions of merchandise, under the provisions of the drawback act of the 3d of March, 1845, to Chihuahua and Santa Fe, by a strict compliance with the regulations prescribed in the instructions of the 10th of April last, requiring each package to be enclosed in a secure wooden box or covering, etc., it is deemed expedient to modify said regulations, to the extent, and in the manner following:

"In lieu of requiring bulky goods imported in large bales or packages, which may be entered for exportation to the places above mentioned, to be secured in the manner hereafter prescribed, all such bales or packages of goods having the original importer's marks and numbers legibly inscribed thereon, are to be secured by a strong cord passed around the middle of the bale or package, and over each end of the same. The two ends of the cord are to be brought together and passed through a planchet or block of lead, the size of half a dollar, and of the thickness of half an inch, the block having a hole through the sides large enough to allow the ends of the cord to pass through the same. Two steel dies are to be prepared, with the name of the custom-house on the upper die, and the name of the port on the under. The block is then to be placed between the two dies, and the impression on the lead is to be made by a stroke of a hammer of sufficient force to flatten the block, so as to close the hole, and firmly secure the cord inserted therein, and at the same time leave a distinct impression of the dies on both sides of the lead.

"It is to be understood that this regulation is not to apply to the light and costly goods, such as laces, crapes, silks, and other articles usually imported in small cases, boxes, or packages; all goods of this description must be secured in the manner indicated in the instructions of the 10th of April last.

"In addition to the foregoing regulations, it is expedient to require each bale or package to be duly weighed, and the weight stated in the invoice required by law to accompany such goods, a form of which is given in the former instructions marked B. This precaution, it is believed, will enable the inspectors stationed at Independence, Van Buren and Fulton, by re-weighing the bales or packages, to ascertain whether the goods have been altered or changed on the route, in the event of their suspicions being excited by the appearance and condition of the packages on their arrival at said places."

## RATES OF PILOTAGE FOR THE PORT OF PHILADELPHIA.

Inwards, up to 12 feet, at $3 00 per foot; above 12 feet, at $3 33. Outwards, up to 12 feet, at $2 25; above 12 feet, $2 67.

RATES ACCORDING TO ACT OF MARCH 29, 1803.

| Inwards. | | Outwards. | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 5 ft. is | $13 33 | 5 feet is | $10 00 |
| 5½ | 14 67 | 5½ | 11 00 |
| 6 | 16 00 | 6 | 12 00 |
| 6½ | 17 33 | 6½ | 13 00 |
| 7 | 18 67 | 7 | 14 00 |
| 7½ | 20 00 | 7½ | 15 00 |
| 8 | 21 33 | 8 | 16 00 |
| 8½ | 22 67 | 8½ | 17 00 |
| 9 | 24 00 | 9 | 18 00 |
| 9½ | 25 33 | 9½ | 19 00 |
| 10 | 26 67 | 10 | 20 00 |
| 10½ | 28 00 | 10½ | 21 00 |
| 11 | 29 33 | 11 | 22 00 |
| 11½ | 30 67 | 11½ | 23 00 |
| 12 | 32 00 | 12 | 24 00 |
| 12½ | 33 67 | 12½ | 25 30 |
| 13 | 35 33 | 13 | 26 60 |
| 13½ | 37 00 | 13½ | 28 00 |
| 14 | 38 67 | 14 | 29 30 |
| 14½ | 40 33 | 14½ | 30 90 |
| 15 | 42 00 | 15 | 32 00 |
| 15½ | 43 67 | 15½ | 33 63 |
| 16 | 45 33 | 16 | 34 00 |
| 16½ | 47 00 | 16½ | 36 30 |
| 17 | 48 67 | 17 | 37 70 |
| 17½ | 50 33 | 17½ | 38 60 |
| 18 | 52 00 | 18 | 40 00 |
| 18½ | 53 67 | 18½ | 41 33 |
| 19 | 55 33 | 19 | 42 67 |
| 19½ | 57 00 | 19½ | 44 00 |
| 20 | 58 67 | 20 | 45 33 |

RATES ACCORDING TO ACT OF FEB. 9, 1803.

| Inwards. | | Outwards. | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 5 feet is | $15 00 | 5 ft. is | $11 25 |
| 5½ | 16 50 | 5½ | 12 37 |
| 6 | 18 00 | 6 | 13 50 |
| 6½ | 19 50 | 6½ | 14 62½ |
| 7 | 21 00 | 7 | 15 75 |
| 7½ | 22 50 | 7½ | 16 87½ |
| 8 | 24 00 | 8 | 18 00 |
| 8½ | 25 50 | 8½ | 19 12½ |
| 9 | 27 00 | 9 | 20 25 |
| 9½ | 28 50 | 9½ | 21 37½ |
| 10 | 30 00 | 10 | 22 50 |
| 10½ | 31 50 | 10½ | 23 62 |
| 11 | 33 00 | 11 | 24 75 |
| 11½ | 34 50 | 11½ | 25 87½ |
| 12 | 36 00 | 12 | 27 00 |
| 12½ | 41 67 | 12½ | 33 33½ |
| 13 | 43 33 | 13 | 34 67½ |
| 13½ | 45 00 | 13½ | 36 00 |
| 14 | 46 67 | 14 | 37 33 |
| 14½ | 48 33 | 14½ | 38 67 |
| 15 | 50 00 | 15 | 40 00 |
| 15½ | 51 67 | 15½ | 41 33½ |
| 16 | 53 33 | 16 | 42 67 |
| 16½ | 55 00 | 16½ | 44 00 |
| 17 | 56 67 | 17 | 45 33 |
| 17½ | 58 33 | 17½ | 46 67 |
| 18 | 60 00 | 18 | 48 00 |
| 18½ | 61 67 | 18½ | 49 33 |
| 19 | 63 33 | 19 | 50 67 |
| 19½ | 65 00 | 19½ | 52 00 |
| 20 | 66 67 | 20 | 53 00 |

Every vessel arriving from or bound to a foreign port, is required by law to receive a pilot, or to pay half pilotage in the warden's office; where the master of every such vessel is required, under a penalty of $10, to make a report within thirty-six hours after his arrival, and again before his departure, signing his name to said report in the warden's book. Every vessel of 75 tons and upwards, arriving from or bound to any port within the United States, and the masters of all such vessels, are bound as above. The pilot of every vessel is required to inform the master thereof, of his having to report at the warden's office. All vessels obliged to receive a pilot, are required to pay $10 in addition, as winter pilotage, from the 20th of November to the 10th of March, both days inclusive. Foreign vessels, i. e., Spanish, Portuguese, Neapolitan, Russian, South American, except the Columbian and Haytien, to pay $2 67, in addition to other pilotage. Every pilot detained 24 hours by any master, owner, or consignee, is entitled to $2 for every day he is so detained. Every pilot detained more than 48 hours by the ice, after he has conducted his vessel to a place of safety, is entitled to $2 per day for every day he is so detained. Every pilot compelled to perform quarantine is entitled to $2 per day for every day he is so detained, and cannot be discharged in less than six days without his consent. Every pilot obliged by the ice or stress of weather to proceed to another port, is, when there, entitled to his pilotage; and, if there discharged, to eight cents a mile for every mile he has to travel home. Every pilot is required, under penalty of $12, to make a report, within forty-eight hours, at the warden's office, of every vessel he conducts to the city. No pilot is allowed to charge for any supernumerary inches under six. Every pilot charging more for his services than is allowed by law, shall, on due proof thereof, be deprived of his license for one year. By an act of the 9th of February, 1837, every vessel towed by a steamboat from the city of Philadelphia to the buoy of the Brown or the Breakwater, or from the buoy of the Brown or the Breakwater to the city of Philadelphia, shall pay pilotage only according to the act of the 20th of March, 1803.

## CUBA REGULATIONS OF TRADE AND TONNAGE.

The following official notice is issued from the Department of State, at Washington, under date February 19th, 1846:

"Information has been received from the United States Consul at Matanzas that, by 'certain regulations issued by the government of the island, having relation to our trade, it is provided that, on and after the 1st day of March, the manifest must contain the name of the master or supercargo, that of the vessel, her tonnage according to Spanish measurement; the name of the place whence she sailed, the number of packages, boxes, etc., composing the cargo, together with the marks and numbers thereof, and the name of the consignees.'

"By a table accompanying these regulations, it is stated that 100 tons, United States measurement, is equal to 123 Spanish.

"By another article, if the actual measurement here should exceed the reported 10 per cent, the expense of such measurement must be paid by the vessel."

## TARIFF OF CHARGES ON COTTON AT MOBILE.

The proprietors of the several presses and warehouses at Mobile, have adopted the following uniform tariff of charges on cotton:

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Factor's storage on cotton, for the season, | 20 | cents per bale. |
| Compressing cotton, | 50 | " " |
| Extra ropes on compressed cotton, each, | 6¼ | " " |
| Labor on ship marked cotton, | 5 | " " |
| Drayage, compressed do | 5 | " " |
| Wharfage, do. do | 5 | " " |
| Storage on cotton going coastwise, per week, | 5 | " " |
| Turning out and re-storing cotton, | 5 | " " |
| Arranging, | 3 | " " |

# NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

## THE TRINITY CORPORATION RULES OF THE SEA,

RECOMMENDED BY THE NEW YORK CHAMBER OF COMMERCE TO BE USED BY AMERICAN VESSELS.

The rules of Trinity Corporation, as observed by masters of British ships, have been recommended by the Chamber of Commerce of this city, to be used by American vessels, when in danger of collision.

The following is the substance of a report made to the Chamber of Commerce:

The Committee report "that they have carefully examined, highly approve of them, and advise that they be extensively published and recommended to the observance of all navigators."

The following are the established rules of the Corporation:

Rule I.—That those ships having the wind fair, shall "give way" to those on a wind.

Rule II.—That when both are going by the wind, the vessel on the starboard tack shall keep her wind, and the one on the larboard tack bear up, thereby passing each other on the larboard hand.

Rule III.—That when both vessels have the wind free, large, or a-beam, and meet, they shall pass each other in the same way, on the larboard hand, by putting the helm to port.

Steam vessels are considered in the light of sailing vessels navigating with a fair wind, and should give way to sailing vessels on a wind on either tack.

Rules for steam vessels.—When steamers meet on different tacks or courses, and there is danger, if their course is continued, of collision, each vessel shall put her helm to port.

Additional proposed rule.—A vessel coming up with another, should pass her to leeward.

Published by order of the Chamber of Commerce.

PROSPER M. WETMORE, Secretary.

## NEW LIGHT-HOUSE AT ST. JOHNS, PORTO RICO.

By a letter under date January 8th, 1846, from Henry G. Hubbard, Consul of the United States at St. Johns, P. R., the Department of State at Washington has been informed that "the captain-general of the island has recently erected a light-house at the mouth of this harbor. It is situated on the Moro, (castle,) at the east side of the entrance to the port, at an elevation of 187½ feet (Burgos measure) above the surface of the sea. It has a revolving light, showing 8 seconds of brightness to 114 of darkness, and its color is natural."

## DISCOVERY OF A NEW SHOAL.

The following is a description of a shoal fallen in with by the ship Ianthe, of Salem, on the passage from New Zealand to Manilla, and not laid down in any chart at the present time. This shoal is directly in the way of whale ships, and other vessels bound to the islands in the Pacific:

"On the 9th of January, 1845, discovered a dangerous shoal near us—in all light sails, and hauled close on the wind to the S. and W., passing over the eastern edge, and within one or two ship's lengths of the shallowest part, which appeared to be of sharp rocks, not more than eight or ten feet under water—the water very much discolored, of a milky whiteness. The coral branches could be very distinctly seen under the bottom, soundings not exceeding, probably, six to eight fathoms. The shoal appeared to extend from S. by E. to N. by W. about a half a mile. By means of two chronometers that varied but little from the time of leaving Auckland, a period of 45 days, we placed the shoal in lon. 145 deg. 39 min. East, and by a good meridian observation, in lat. 5 deg. 53 min. North; the nearest land being at the time the Caroline Islands, about 85 miles distant."

## LIGHTS ON THE ISLAND OF MOEN.

The following translation of a notice to mariners has been received at the Department of State at Washington, from the legation of the United States at Copenhagen:

"A fixed light, with lens apparatus, of the fourth order or class, will be placed in a light-house 35 feet above the ground, and 80 feet above the level of the sea, on the south-eastern point of the Island of Moen, in lat. 54. 57. N., and lon. 12. 32¾.

"This new light, which will be illuminated for the first time on the 20th of this present month, (November,) 1845, and afterwards kept burning during the same hours as the other lights of the kingdom, will be visible from an ordinary ship's deck at the distance of three miles, (Danish,) and give light in the sea from the direction of the entrance of Gronsund, round south and east, until it is covered by Moen's Klint in the direction of about north-east half east.

## PORT OF CARNARVON.

Notice is hereby given, that on and after the first of January, 1846, a fixed red light will be exhibited, from dark to daylight, on Landdwynn Point, in Carnarvon Bay. It will be seen in clear weather about five miles to seaward, between the bearings (from Landdwynn by compass) of N. W. by N. and S. W. by W. This light is intended solely as a leading light for the entrance of Menai Straits, by way of Carnarvon bar, and not for channel purposes. Vessels bound to the straits are recommended not to attempt the bar until daylight.

# RAILROAD AND STEAMBOAT STATISTICS.

## MASSACHUSETTS RAILROADS.

THE following table, showing the length, cost, receipts from passengers and freight, and total receipts, expenses, nett income, number of miles run by passengers, number of miles run by merchandise and other trains, total receipts and expenses per mile, &c., &c., of the Railroads in Massachusetts, in 1845, is compiled from the annual Reports to the Legislature of that state.

TABLE.

| Name. | L'th | Cost. | Passenger receipts in 1845. | Mdze. and oth. rec'pts in 1845. | Total receipts in 1845. | Expenses. | Nett inc. | Number of miles run by passenger trains, in 1845. | Numb. of miles run by mdze. and other trains, in 1845. | Tot. No. of miles run in 1845. | Tot. rec. per m. run in 1845. | Expense per m. run in 1845. | Nett income p. m. run in 1845. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | *M's.* | *Dollars.* | *Dollars.* | *Dollars.* | *Dollars.* | *Dollars.* | *Dollars.* | | | | $ | $ | $ |
| Worcester, .... | 44 | 2,900,000 | 241,219 | 246,237 | 487,456 | 249,729 | 237,727 | 164,958 | 88,748 | 253,706 | 1 92 | 0 99 | 0 93 |
| Western, ..... | 156 | 7,999,556 | 366,753 | 446,727 | 813,480 | 370,621 | 442,859 | 202,478 | 327,723 | 530,201 | 1 53 | 0 69 | 0 84 |
| Nor. & Wor,* | 68 | 2,170,492 | 116,202 | 88,106 | 204,308 | 85,765 | 118,543 | 134,964 | 38,966 | 173,230 | 1 18 | 0 49 | 0 69 |
| Conn. River,†. | 38 | 511,473 | 10,102 | 3,419 | 13,521 | 5,520 | 8,001 | 11,962 | 3,306 | 15,268 | 0 89 | 0 36 | 0 53 |
| Berkshire,‡..... | 21 | 250,000 | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | 13,240 | 16,119 | 29,359 | ..... | ..... | ..... |
| Providence,..... | 42 | 1,964,677 | 232,677 | 117,952 | 350,629 | 152,802 | 197,827 | 117,004 | 58,199 | 175,203 | 2 00 | 0 87 | 1 13 |
| Stoughton,§.... | 7 | 88,418 | 3,753 | 4,058 | 7,811 | 2,906 | 4,905 | 2,380 | 1,852 | 4,232 | 1 84 | 0 68 | 1 16 |
| Taunton,..... | 11 | 250,000 | 37,896 | 18,947 | 56,843 | 41,196 | 15,647 | 19,184 | 8,804 | 27,988 | 2 03 | 1 47 | 0 56 |
| New Bedford,. | 21 | 453,623 | 52,659 | 25,552 | 78,211 | 29,384 | 48,827 | 34,880 | 13,160 | 48,040 | 1 63 | 0 61 | 1 02 |
| Fall River,.... | 17 | 317,805 | 13,279 | 2,518 | 15,797 | 8,206 | 7,591 | 12,340 | 5,460 | 17,800 | 0 89 | 0 46 | 0 43 |
| Old Colony,‖.. | 38 | 833,536 | 3,828 | ..... | 3,828 | ..... | ..... | 2,550 | ..... | 2,550 | ..... | ..... | ..... |
| Eastern,..... | 55 | 2,471,561 | 297,440 | 52,709 | 350,149 | 116,840 | 233,309 | 169,437 | 49,156 | 218,583 | 1 60 | 0 53 | 1 07 |
| Boston & Me,... | 70 | 1,887,329 | 143,645 | 99,981 | 243,626 | 110,663 | 132,963 | 190,719 | 77,393 | 268,112 | 0 90 | 0 41 | 0 49 |
| Lowell,..... | 26 | 1,932,598 | 176,952 | 179,116 | 356,068 | 179,042 | 177,026 | 112,793 | 62,744 | 175,537 | 2 03 | 1 02 | 1 01 |
| Nashua,..... | 14 | 500,000 | 53,007 | 59,674 | 112,681 | 48,010 | 64,671 | 28,560 | 14,505 | 43,065 | 2 61 | 1 11 | 1 50 |
| Charlest'n B'ch, | 6 | 327,359 | 3,734 | 23,080 | 26,814 | 16,277 | 10,537 | 2,768 | 12,032 | 14,800 | 1 81 | 1 10 | 0 71 |
| Fitchburg,¶ ... | 49 | 1,477,477 | 100,817 | 103,179 | 203,996 | 78,334 | 125,662 | 110,229 | 57,587 | 167,816 | 1 22 | 0 47 | 0 75 |
| Total,.... | 683 | 26,335,934 | 1,853,963 | 1,471,955 | 3,325,918 | 1,495,295 | 1,826,095 | 1,330,436 | 835,054 | 2,165,490 | 1 56 | 0 70 | 0 86 |

* For eleven months, ending November 29th, 1845.
† Open to Northampton December 13th, 1845.
‡ Let to the Housatonic Railroad Company.
§ Opened April 7th, 1845.
‖ Opened November 10th, 1845.
¶ Opened to Shirley Dec. 30th, 1844—throughout, March 5th, 1845.

The three last columns of the above table show the average receipts, expenses, and nett income per mile run, during the year 1845.

## MASSACHUSETTS RAILWAYS.

MR. HUNT—The official returns to the Legislature of Massachusetts show an increase in the receipts of this year, compared with the last; while there is a decided decrease in the general expenses, and the average expenses per mile run. This last item varies from 36 cents, on the Connecticut River Railroad, to 147 cents per mile run on the Taunton Branch, a short railway of 11 miles. The average, it will be perceived, is reduced to 70 cents per mile run; being 30 cents under the average rate in the United States up to the year 1838, according to the estimate of the Chevalier de Gerstner, and a like rate at that period in Great Britain.

There are 26 railways in Massachusetts commenced, and in the course of construction, on which upwards of $28,000,000 have been expended. Of this number, only 17 railways are embraced in the tabular statement, being roads that are finished, or partially finished, producing income, on a cost of..... $26,355,934

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| The gross receipts on these roads, from freight,..... | $1,471,255 | |
| " " " " passengers,. | 1,853,963 | |
| Total,..... | $3,325,218 | |
| Total expenses of running and repairs,..... | 1,495,295 | |
| Nett receipts, near 7 per cent,..... | $1,829,923 | |

The main central line through the state, from Boston to Albany, cost as follows:—

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| From Boston to Worcester, 44 miles,..... | | $2,900,000 |
| Worcester to Stockbridge and Albany, 156 miles,..... | | 7,999,956 |
| Total cost of 200 miles,..... | | $10,899,956 |
| The gross receipts on this line—Passengers,..... | $607,972 | |
| " " " Freight,..... | 692,964 | |
| Total,..... | $1,300,936 | |
| Expenses,..... | 620,350 | |
| Equal to 6¼ per cent on cost,..... | $680,586 | |

The present nett receipts for dividends on these two roads, now they are amalgamated, may be set down as above 7 per cent; as $4,000,000 of the capital on the Western Railroad is borrowed under the guarantee of the state, at 5 per cent; and $1,000,000 of the city of Albany, at 6 per cent.

This view of the complete success of 682 miles of railways in Massachusetts, and 707 miles of railways in the state of New York, should convince the most timid capitalists that this class of investments, particularly with the dividends payable quarterly, as they should be, are safer and more profitable than banks, and may be considered equal to real estate, "*when judiciously located, and constructed between desirable points.*" This must eminently be the case between New York city, Albany, and Troy, to Lake Erie, through the southern tier of counties, and is far more important. A substantial freight railway, to connect New York with the Connecticut Valley, and 900 miles of railway now in use, and a like number of miles in the course of construction, that will unite New York, by continuous lines, to Portland, in Maine, on the northeast, and with Montreal on the north. It is difficult to estimate the value of the abundant water-power in the Connecticut Valley, with the travel and traffic, the construction of a railway, by Danbury to Hartford, will bring to New York city, or a railway extended along the Sound to New Haven.

That the citizens of New York should lose no time to aid in the construction of substantial railways to the Valley of the Ohio, through the state, and along the south shore of Lake Erie, is self-evident, now that there is a prospect of reciprocal free trade with

Great Britain, particularly in bread-stuffs, and provisions generally. It is impossible to get out the western wheat and corn crops to pass them in time, by our canals, for the fall and winter market of Great Britain. As a consequence, they must go to the warm climate of New Orleans for shipment, down the uncertain, dangerous, and late navigation of the Ohio and its tributaries, by expensive steamboat navigation, without the reciprocity in exchange, at New Orleans, there would be with New York, if we had railways to bring the wheat of Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois, in the months of August, September, and October, to be ground at our mills, for the English markets. With railways to the west, and our admirable packets to carry to great advantage the mixed cargoes of corn and cotton, we could send in our supplies before wheat could be procured from the Baltic or the Black Sea, should they attempt to compete with us.

It must be perceived that railways are now indispensable to get bread-stuffs, pork, beef, butter, cheese, &c., from the west, with certainty, and *at all seasons*, to New York. If they are neglected, the free trade system of Great Britain will throw into the lap of New Orleans a trade New York *can command* by railways, and only by this system of intercommunication. All lines of railways, even south of New York, across the Alleghany ridge, to Ohio and the West, will, to a certain extent, be beneficial to the city of New York. She must forget "*her great natural advantages*," and open her eyes to the fact that steamboats on the Mississippi and Ohio rivers will have to contend with the *Locomotor*, and its train of cars, bringing the grains and provisions of the west to a healthy city, destined for England, two to three weeks in advance of the time required to make the voyage from New Orleans to Europe, at an unhealthy season of the year, when the wheat crop of the west is ready for a market. J. E. B.

## RAILROADS OF NEW YORK, IN 1845.

The following table of twenty-one railways, is compiled from the official returns made to the Secretary of State, under oath. It is his third annual report, made in pursuance of a resolution of the Assembly, 2d February, 1843.

NEW YORK RAILROADS.

| Name of Road. | Length. | Cost. | Exp. of running, etc. | No. of pass. | Income from pass. | Income from ft. | Inc. from mails, etc. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Mohawk and Hudson, | 17 | $1,460,990 | $37,667 | 158,541 | $79,644 | $14,781 | $2,675 |
| Utica & Schenectady, | 78 | 2,189,505 | 147,558 | 161,655 | 358,810 | 41,769 | 10,492 |
| Syracuse and Utica, | 53 | 1,116,872 | 140,294 | 123,534 | 182,485 | 12,946 | 6,956 |
| Auburn and Syracuse, | 26 | 675,239 | 44,326 | 87,244 | 79,500 | 15,557 | 4,725 |
| Auburn and Rochester, | 78 | 1,833,045 | 96,985 | 119,760 | 214,143 | 17,128 | 7,788 |
| Tonawanda, | 43½ | 783,409 | 37,006 | 73,130 | 89,897 | 20,311 | 6,462 |
| Attica and Buffalo, | 31 | 1,308,608 | 30,975 | 71,487 | 58,976 | 6,602 | 4,300 |
| Main Line to Buffalo, | 326½ | 8,361,669 | 534,511 | 795,351 | 1,061,255 | 129,094 | 43,398 |
| Buffalo and Niag. Falls, | 22 | 217,472 | 13,530 | 40,861 | 25,804 | 1,877 | 912 |
| Saratoga & Schenec'dy, | 22 | 300,000 | 24,480 | 38,611 | 30,468 | 5,290 | 994 |
| Troy and Schenectady, | 20½ | 641,540 | 27,561 | 58,309 | 28,244 | 3,070 | 2,048 |
| Troy and Saratoga, | 25 | 475,801 | 33,943 | 40,291 | 28,458 | 6,936 | 2,780 |
| Long Island,† | 96 | 1,753,046 | 300,264 | 191,414 | 147,650 | 19,675 | 172,909 |
| New York and Erie, | 53 | 2,084,408 | 70,218 | 83,483 | 44,175 | 88,170 | |
| New York and Harlem, | 27 | 1,213,456 | 81,958 | 1,413,340 | 167,554 | 9,883 | |
| Alb. & W. Stockbridge, | 39¼ | 1,759,827 | —* | 82,274 | —* | —* | no ret'rn |
| Hudson and Berkshire, | 31 | 575,928 | 23,000 | 17,989 | 8,367 | 27,572 | |
| Skeneateles and Jordan, | 5¼ | 27,261 | 3,802 | 3,566 | 852 | 1,538 | 820 |
| Cayuga & Susquehanna, | 29 | 18,000 | 13,725 | | 2,079 | 10,048 | |
| Troy and Greenbush, | 6 | 233,371 | 5,981 | 98,711 | 12,200 | 3,647 | |
| Buffalo and Black Rock, | 3 | 21,650 | 650 | 9,407 | 1,176 | | |
| Lewiston, | 3¼ | 27,050 | 3,845 | 19,318 | 4,758 | 271 | 250 |
| Total, | 707½ | $17,710,479 | $836,968 | | $1,563,040 | $301,071 | $231,109 |

† Receipts part steamboat. * Included in Western Railroad.

| | |
|---|---|
| It will be perceived that 707½ miles of railroad, being an increase of 68½ miles since the last report, has cost | $17,710,479 |
| Of this sum, is included the cost of the Albany and West Stockbridge Railroad, in New York State, but of which there is no return of income, (?) being a part of the Albany and Boston Railway—taken off, | 1,759,827 |
| Total, | $15,950,652 |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| The gross receipts from passengers, | $1,563,040 | |
| " " freight, | 301,071 | |
| " " mails, and L. I. steamboats, | 231,109 | |
| | | $2,095,220 |
| The gross expenses for running the road, and repairs, | | 836,968 |
| The nett receipts being equal to 7¼ per cent, | | $1,258,252 |

The main line, 326½ miles, from Albany to Buffalo, (the Mohawk and Hudson, 17 miles, costing three prices,) has yielded near 8½ per cent on a cost of $8,361,669.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Total receipts from passengers, | $1,061,255 | |
| " " freight, | 129,094 | |
| " " mails, &c., | 43,398 | |
| | | $1,233,747 |
| Total expenses of running and repairs, | | 534,511 |
| Total, | | $699,236 |

It will be noticed that, owing to the restrictive policy, forbidding New York railways to carry freight parallel to the line of the Erie canal, except during the winter months, and then subject to heavy canal tolls, (a boon not worth accepting to provide the requisite costly motive power to conduct it,) freight is in the ratio of one to ten on the main line to Buffalo, and in the whole state as one to five!

How different is the policy in Massachusetts! By reference to the Merchants' Magazine, for 1845, (page 385,) we find that 568 miles of roads, over the rough rocky mountains of New England, cost $23,071,503.

| | |
|---|---|
| The receipts from passengers was | $1,652,534 |
| " " freight, | 1,177,983 |
| Total, | $2,830,517 |
| The expenses for running and repairs, | 1,244,290 |
| Equal to 6¾ per cent, | $1,586,227 |

It should be noted that, in the above cost, is included the Fitchburgh Railroad, (49 miles, $1,150,000,) that had but just commenced; thus producing 7 per cent for the Massachusetts roads for the year 1844. This year, it will probably exceed this ratio of nett increase; and, like the year 1844, show Massachusetts and her railways, for traffic as well as passengers, in the ratio of near twelve to sixteen; while New York, depending on her Erie Canal, did not receive from freight but about one-tenth, compared with nine-tenths received from passengers by her railroads, as she taxes them with full canal tolls! This blot on her statute-book should be erased. The public should be accommodated; yet, in doing it, we would protect the present state indebtedness by imposing moderate tolls on the railways parallel to the Erie Canal, sufficient to secure the payment of principal and interest on the canal debt, say in eighteen years. Then, (after allowing 7 per cent as dividends for risk on this class of investment,) give every encouragement to private enterprise and capital, invested in the present line of railways to Buffalo, to lay down a substantial edge-rail, of at least 70 lbs. to the linear yard, and thus save further state expenditure for canals. We would reduce the canal tolls on the railways built, and o be built, on this great thoroughfare, and claim of them a speed for passengers of full

thirty miles per hour, and eight miles per hour for freight;—then avoid, as unjust, all interference with the present charters parallel to the Erie Canal, so long as they are restricted to pay full canal tolls in the winter months. With the Erie Canal on one side, and the Erie Railway on the other—also, the several railways to the south of New York, through Pennsylvania, Maryland, and Virginia, destined to contend for the same trade—there need be no fear but that the public will be well accommodated by competition. We shall find it to be for the interest of the interior, as well as the city of New York, to permit railways to carry freight the entire year, subject to the payment of moderate tolls, until the canal debt is paid. Then we would take off tolls entirely, except so far as to pay for their repairs and attendance. J. E. B.

## SOUTHWESTERN RAILROAD AND BANKING COMPANY.

It appears from the annual report of this Company that it is in a flourishing condition, and that the gross receipts for freight, passage, and the mails, from the first of January, 1845, to the first of January, 1846, amount to $558,697 71, while the current expenses for the same time are $389,735 10, leaving a nett profit for the past year of $168,962 61, of which two dividends have been paid to stockholders of $147,900, leaving a balance for the improvement of the road of $21,062 61. The number of bales of cotton received the past year, amounts to 197,657 bales, while the quantity of packages of merchandise shipped, sums up 82,165. The total number of passengers travelling between Charleston, Hamburgh and Columbia, is reported as 56,785, for which the Company received $161,967 09. The route of a new road, diverging from the Columbia branch, to run to Camden, has been surveyed, and the cost of it, estimated at $700,000, has been already subscribed for, and the work commenced. There is now a continuous line of railroad, from Charleston, penetrating into Georgia 388 miles, and we trust ere long to see it extended to the great Valley of the Mississippi.

## STEAMBOATS BUILDING IN ST. LOUIS, IN 1845.

The Surveyor of the Port of St. Louis, Missouri, has furnished the St. Louis Price Current with the following statement of steamboats built at St. Louis; of those built elsewhere on St. Louis account, and of boats purchased and brought into the St. Louis trade, in 1845; which will be found interesting, as showing a steady increase in this important branch of business:—

BOATS BUILT AT ST. LOUIS.

| Names. | Tonnage. | Cost. | Names. | Tonnage. | Cost. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Gov. Briggs, | 91 | $9,000 | Prairie Bird, | 213 | $17,000 |
| Laclede, | 239 | 20,000 | Little Dove, | 77 | 5,500 |
| Missouri, | 887 | 45,000 | Ocean Wave, | 205 | 17,000 |
| Iowa, | 249 | 22,000 | Convoy, | 750 | 39,000 |
| Dial, | 140 | 7,000 | | | |
| Helen, | 61 | 8,000 | Total, ....tons | 2,912 | $189,500 |

BUILT ELSEWHERE, FOR ST. LOUIS OWNERS.

| Names. | Tonnage. | Cost. | Names. | Tonnage. | Cost. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Boreas, No. 2, Pittsburgh, | 222 | $20,500 | Wiota, Elizabethtown, | 219 | $17,000 |
| Nebraska, " | 149 | 15,500 | Odd Fellow, Smithland, | 98 | 7,500 |
| War Eagle, Cincinnati, | 156 | 14,000 | Pride of the West, Cinn., | 371 | 20,000 |
| Time, Louisville, | 109 | 6,500 | | | |
| Windsor, " | 196 | 16,000 | Total, ....tons | 1,520 | $117,000 |

PURCHASED FOR THE ST. LOUIS TRADE.

| Names. | Tonnage. | Cost. | Names. | Tonnage. | Cost. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Falcon, of Beaver, | 144 | $6,000 | Amulet, of Wheeling, | 56 | $2,500 |
| Fortune, of Louisville, | 101 | 6,000 | Tioga, of Wheeling, | 171 | 4,000 |
| Balloon, of New Albany, | 154 | 6,000 | Tributary, of Pittsburgh, | 149 | 8,000 |
| Radnor, of Jeffersonville, | 163 | 6,000 | Lehigh, of Pittsburgh, | 188 | 4,500 |
| Cecilia, of Pittsburgh, | 112 | 3,000 | Cumb'd Valley, Smithf'd, | 168 | 2,000 |
| North Bend, of Pittsb'gh, | 120 | 4,000 | | | |
| Archer, of Pittsburgh, | 148 | 9,000 | Total, ....tons | 1,674 | $61,000 |
| Total addition to St. Louis tonnage, ....tons | | | | | 6,106 |
| Total cost, | | | | | $367,500 |

# MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

## MERCANTILE LIBRARY COMPANY OF PHILADELPHIA.

The annual meeting of this valuable institution took place on the 13th January, 1846, and we are gratified to learn from the twenty-third annual report, which has just been published, that it continues to deserve and receive the support of the merchants and merchants' clerks of Philadelphia. The meeting was held in the new hall of the Company, dedicated to the cause of knowledge and morals, adapted in its arrangements to the purposes of its erection, creditable to the liberality of its friends, and worthy of the mercantile reputation of Philadelphia. The interior is divided into nineteen apartments, exclusive of the cellar. The entire second story of the main building, and of the east wing, are occupied as the library and reading-rooms of the Company; and the intermediate story of the same wing is used by the Directors. All the other apartments, except the intermediate story in the west wing, are rented and occupied by gentlemen and associations of high respectability. The furnaces and flues provided for the purpose, have proved fully sufficient to supply the whole building with abundant heat, during the coldest weather experienced since its erection.

The building was erected at an expense of more than $21,000. Large additions have been made to the library during the last year, and it now contains 10,279 volumes. We cannot resist the temptation, in closing the present notice of this Association, of extracting a few paragraphs of general interest, from the sensible, well-written report of the Board of Directors.

"In this country, youth forms a large portion of active life; it thronga the crowded thoroughfares of the city, it freights every ship that traverses the ocean, its energy is seen in the busy walks of commerce, and every department of human enterprise feels its power. Its active and responsible life commences at an earlier age here than elsewhere, it is sooner released from the restraints of parental government, and earlier aspires to the attainment of personal independence.

"The most of you have engaged in a pursuit, which, although it does not invite you to studious retirement, is not incompatible with the indulgence of a literary taste, or attention to science and the arts. Your profession, honorable as it is, calls for the exercise of an enlarged mind and extensive knowledge. Commerce has been at all times a great agent in promoting the civilization of man, and the transactions of foreign trade necessarily tend to the wide diffusion of liberal sentiments. Questions relating to the production and distribution of wealth, views of commercial intercourse between separate countries, and theories of currency, are the studies of modern statesmen; and interests binding distinct mercantile communities, may prove to be the pacific element in the settlement of difficulties between civilized nations.

"The intelligent merchant ought to be among the first to discern what is passing in distant countries or his own, bearing on the interests of his business. He should become acquainted with the springs of human conduct, the motives that influence the decisions of men, and the interests by which their passions are aroused, and their prejudices controlled. Well directed reading and thought will assist to form close and accurate observations of life and character, and he will be best qualified for the business of the world, who has just conceptions of the duties of his position, and the requisite ability for meeting them.

"To no class of men in this republic, is the dissemination of useful knowledge and views of sound morality more important than to merchants. Here, their accumulated wealth has given power, a general prosperity has conferred leisure—a perilous gift to an uncultivated mind, often abused to the indulgence of mean and degraded excitements, while the well informed merchant will find that the pleasures of literature shed a cheering light over the quiet scenes of private life; and with paths to honorable ambition open, incentives to philanthropic labor presented, he will be qualified and disposed to the performance of the public duties which his fellow-citizens may require at his hands.

"The spirit of competition of our age and country has engendered an excited feeling, an energetic action in all conditions of society. Our government rests for support, prin-

cipally, on the general intelligence of the people. With a rapidly augmenting population beyond all precedent, with growing cities approaching the extent and magnificence of European capitals, filled with dense masses of human beings, the importance of diffused intelligence is apparent. Under despotic governments ignorance may be a misfortune, in this country it is a public wrong."

## MERCANTILE LIBRARY ASSOCIATION OF BALTIMORE.

We have received the sixth annual report of the Board of Directors of the Mercantile Library Association of Baltimore; and it affords us pleasure to mark the steady growth of an institution so well calculated to elevate the intellectual character of the future merchants of the country. The report is just such a paper as we should expect from our friend, Charles Bradenbaugh, the intelligent President—chaste, brief, and to the point. From it we learn that the number of its members has been largely increased, its library considerably augmented; and general indications of a vigorous activity in its officers, denote that the same zeal and spirit which watched over its infancy, will not be wanting in its maturity. The number of volumes in the library at the close of the preceeding year, was 4,393, which has been increased to 5,221. The additions were made chiefly by purchase, the donations amounting to only thirty volumes. The number of periodicals received at the reading-room, is 28—6 quarterlies, 13 monthlies, and 9 weeklies. The number of active members at the last report was 361, which has been increased, after deducting the withdrawals, to 571; an addition of 204 in one year—101 honorary, and 339 active members have used the library during the year, and drawn from it an aggregate of 8,500 volumes. From the treasurer's report, it appears that the revenue of the year, from all sources, was $1,920; and that $1,800 have been expended for books, etc., leaving a small balance in the treasury.

## ARTICLES CONSUMED IN THE MANUFACTURE OF GLASS.

We cheerfully give place to the following communication from Mr. Samuel Hunt, Clerk of the Boston and Sandwich Glass Company. It requires no comment.

FREEMAN HUNT, Esq., *Editor Merchants' Magazine:*

Sir:—I take the liberty to hand you herewith a statement of the consumption of articles that enter into the manufacture of Flint Glass in the United States, and which shows conclusively the importance of continuing the protection to that branch of business, into which the raw material of our own country enters so largely—and would also remark, that the amount of capital invested in this business is about $2,000,000, and the glass manufactured annually exceeds $2,500,000. The number of manufactories engaged in this business is nineteen.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Bituminous coal, Amer.,....bush. | 1,201,000 | Straw,.....tons | 1,700 |
| " Foreign,..... | 50,000 | Staves,.....No. | 475,000 |
| Anthracite coal,.....tons | 4,500 | Hoops, ..... | 270,000 |
| Wood, .....cords | 8,666 | Boards,.....feet | 1,400,000 |
| Rosin, .....bbls. | 2,800 | Clay,.....tons | 956 |
| Silex,.....tons | 3,555 | Iron,..... | 970 |
| Missouri lead,.....lbs. | 3,616,000 | Borax,.....lbs. | 20,400 |
| Pearl ashes,..... | 2,875,200 | Arsenic, ..... | 22,200 |
| Saltpetre, ..... | 272,600 | Manganese,..... | 6,500 |

To which may be added one or two hundred thousand dollars' worth of brass, Britannia, and tin, trimmings, mountings, &c., to glass articles.

The window glass manufactories, no doubt, consume more fuel, ash, and some other materials, than the foregoing exhibits.

If you consider the above of sufficient importance to give it a place in your valuable Journal, you will much oblige Yours, respectfully,

SAMUEL HUNT,
*Clerk of the Boston and Sandwich Glass Company.*

## NEW ENGLAND MUTUAL LIFE INSURANCE COMPANY.

This company was commenced February 1st, 1844, since which 802 policies have been effected on good terms, and with a well-invested capital. From the first report, which has been recently published, we glean the following facts:

The amount of insurance in policies for the whole life, is $868,541 62, and $1,073,235 50 in those for periods of years. Only four policies have terminated in losses, viz: one of $2,000, two of $1,000 each, and one of $500, all of which were paid. Persons insured—253 merchants, traders and brokers; 86 mechanics and tradesmen; 82 clerks, cashiers, treasurers and bank officers; 61 students, and 58 lawyers; 46 teachers and literary professors; 45 manufacturers; 41 clergymen; 31 farmers; 28 physicians; 25 editors and booksellers; 18 engineers and machinists; 14 females; 61 master mariners; 9 keepers of hotels; 29 artists, officers, etc., etc. Much the largest proportion of policies, are to make provisions for families of the parties insured, or persons dependent upon them, and the law of Massachusetts protects the same, whether a person dies insolvent or not.

## "LOUISIANA: ITS AGRICULTURAL AND COMMERCIAL INTERESTS."

In the Merchants' Magazine for February, 1846, we published an article with the above title, which we received from the New Orleans Chamber of Commerce. The document was drawn up by the Chamber, as a reply to certain questions propounded by the Secretary of the Treasury, and forwarded to Washington; but does not appear in the voluminous report of the Secretary. We have since received the following letter from a highly respectable gentleman of Portland, Me., and we cheerfully comply with his request to give it a place in the pages of this Magazine. We candidly express our ignorance, as to the matter in dispute, and we shall be glad to hear from the respectable gentlemen of the Chamber of Commerce at New Orleans:—

TO THE EDITOR AND PROPRIETOR OF THE "MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE AND COMMERCIAL REVIEW."

*Freeman Hunt, Esq.*—Sir—Having been a subscriber to your Magazine since the commencement, I have always perused it with pleasure, and prize it highly for the valuable information with which it abounds, and have been accustomed to place confidence in it for its statements, particularly in its statistical information, and have ever valued it as a very useful reference-book, especially for the mercantile portion of the community; and I therefore take the liberty of calling your attention to an article in the February number of the present year, entitled "Louisiana: its Agricultural and Commercial Interests;" which article contains many valuable and interesting statistics; but unless those with which I am not conversant are not more correct than the statements contained in the last paragraph, commencing on the 150th page, I shall have good reason to doubt the correctness of any one of them; it is there stated that of "about 17,000,000 gallons of molasses imported into the United States in 1843–4 from Cuba, only 500,000 gallons is known in Cuba by the name of molasses," and this quantity, 500,000 gallons, "is the drainings of Muscovado sugar," and that the residue, 16,500,000 gallons, is there called "syrup," and not known in Cuba by the name of molasses; and that this "syrup," as the gentlemen committee say who give this *astonishing* information to the Secretary of the Treasury, is produced from the sugars which are clayed in Cuba, and imported into the United States under a molasses duty, for the purpose of having extracted by "the establishments of the north" 125,000,000 pounds of sugar! thus "greatly injuring the interests of the Louisiana sugar-planters! and causing a loss to the United States revenue of *three millions of dollars!*" Now I ask in all candor, can it be possible that the gentlemen who make this statement believe it to be true? and from the known reputation of one of them in this quarter, it cannot be thought that they would *knowingly* make any false statement, and yet, it is too much to believe that they were thus ignorant; yet you may rest assured, sir, that it is a gross misrepresentation, and that the article which these gentlemen denominate "syrup," and "arising," as they say, in the operation of claying sugar, is the most inferior quality of molasses, and principally used in the United States for the distillation of spirit; and a portion of that which is sweet, (as the greater part is frequently sour,) by families in New England in lieu of sugar, as it is very much cheaper; and the quality

which they say is known only as *molasses* in Cuba, and made from the drainings of Muscovado sugar, is much superior in quality to the other, or clayed molasses, as it is termed, and always costs more in Cuba, and sells for a much higher price in this country. I am constrained to believe, sir, that you did not notice the misrepresentation alluded to, or you would have given this portion of the article an explanatory note; and I hope you will not object to publishing this in your next number, so that the "Committee of the Chamber of Commerce at New Orleans" may inform themselves on this subject, and correct their very great and palpable error which they have either knowingly or ignorantly made. S. W.

*Portland, March* 5, 1846.

## BRITISH TRADE WITH CHINA.

Returns of trade at the ports of Amoy and Shanghai, for the year 1844, received from Francis C. Macgregor, the British Consul at Canton, have been laid before Parliament. We have received a copy of these returns, and now proceed to present to the readers of this Magazine a summary statement. The returns exhibit a great increase, particularly in cotton goods, notwithstanding the resort of British shipping to the new ports of China. The total number of vessels from all countries which arrived at Canton for the year ending December 31, 1844, was 360, of 142,099 tons, and 296 vessels of 140,182 tons, cleared.

All monopolies, with the exception of a few reserved by the Chinese Government, have ceased; the foreign shipping is no longer exposed to the caprice and extortion of rapacious mandarins, and the duties both of imports and exports are, in most instances, fixed on so moderate a scale as hardly to afford a sufficient temptation to the regular merchants to evade them. Thus relieved from all those trammels by which it was formerly fettered, the trade of Canton has increased beyond the most sanguine expectations, and notwithstanding the opening of the northern ports, which have attracted no inconsiderable portion of the China trade, the importation of British woollens, and especially of cottons, into Canton, in 1844, has far exceeded the maximum of former periods. The import trade with Canton, in 1844, was carried on in 206 British vessels, of 104,322 tons, and 96 Hong-Kong lorchas, of 5,784 tons, and the various articles supplied form a total amount of 15,929,132 dollars, inclusive of treasure. British manufactures and staple articles were imported to the amount of $7,860,676, among which were woollen goods amounting to $2,898,866, and cotton fabrics, including yarns, to the extent of $4,722,836, while the importation of raw cotton and other products of India and the eastern countries forms an item of $7,645,564, exclusive of opium, of which latter article, the enormous quantity of 40,000 chests was supplied by the contraband trade, representing a capital of nearly $20,000,000.

British woollens imported into Canton amounted in 1844 to 4,745,448 yards, and cottons to 1,158,475 pieces. As to the export trade, it appears that commodities were exported from Canton in 164 British vessels of 83,679 tons, to the amount of $17,925,360, among which tea, raw silk, and cassia, as usual, formed the most important objects, constituting nine-tenths of the value of all the articles exported, of which $16,398,950 consisted in raw produce, and $1,526,410 in various articles of Chinese manufacture. It has been ascertained from memoranda which Mr. Macgregor made, that the value in round numbers of the return cargoes shipped off from thence in British vessels to the several countries and places, was distributed in the following proportion, viz.:—

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1st, | To ports of the | United Kingdom,..... | $15,400,000 |
| 2d, | " | British India,..... | 2,100,000 |
| 3d, | " | Singapore, Manilla, Australia, Nova Scotia, and South America,..... | 400,000 |
| Total,..... | | | $17,900,000 |

Of the 228 vessels of 111,350 tons, under British colors, which arrived in the course of the year, 162 ships of 70,768 tons were actually British, the rest of 66 ships of 30,582 tons being ships belonging to British India and the British Colonies, termed "country ships." The number of ships which entered in ballast was 16, of 5,300 tons, arriving from Hong-Kong, Manilla, and the Straits of Malacca, and Australia, in search of a freight of tea, while the number of those which departed in ballast, amounted to 61, of 27,723 tons, destined for Hong-Kong, Singapore, Manilla, and India. The number of British vessels still in the river at Whampoa, on the 31st of December, 1844, was 26, of 13,638 tons, but a great part of them were dispatched in the course of January.

Mr. Macgregor, the Consul at Canton, in his letter to John F. Davis, her majesty's Minister Plenipotentiary, says:—

"The market, notwithstanding importations unusually large, has not shown any appearance of being glutted; and although the eagerness to do business evinced by the native merchants, recently established, involved them in slight embarrassments towards the end of the season, yet it seems that all pecuniary engagements were ultimately fulfilled, and that no bankruptcies of any note are on record. Whatever turn the China trade may take hereafter, it is pretty certain that Canton will always retain a very important share in it as an emporium for the supply of the southern division of this vast empire, while the wealth and industrious habits of the people must exercise a great influence in the interior. Although this commerce must be considered as still in its infancy, yet there is every prospect that, in proportion with the demand for European articles which the industry of our manufacturers and the activity of our merchants has created among the Chinese population, it will become firmly established and gradually increase, without requiring, for the present at least, any further interference on the part of the legislature."

## MINING OPERATIONS OF THE FRENCH.

The French minister of public works, has just published the report of the works of the engineers of mines, etc., during the year 1844, and which acquires fresh importance every year as the working of mines become more developed. The report, after giving a detailed list of the departments in which the mines of different metals and minerals are found, proceeds thus:—

"The number of mines now worked amounts to 446, viz: 261 of coal; 143 of iron; 14 of lead, copper, silver, antimony, and manganese; 16 of bituminous minerals, and 12 of rock salt. These works give employment to upwards of 33,880 men. The dues for the year, calculated on the nett produce, amount to 369,903 francs, being 11,553 francs more than in 1843. Several quarries of white statuary marble have been opened in the departments of Ariege, the Aube, Isere, and the Hautes Pyrenees. The quarry of St. Beat, in the Hautes Pyrenees, has in particular furnished an enormous stock of white marble, of the first quality, for an equestrian statue. Quarries of black and green marble have been reopened in the Hautes Alps, the Ariege, the Aube, and the Isere, to supply materials for the crypt of Napoleon, in the Church of the Invalids. Other quarries of brown and green marble have been reopened in the Basses Pyrenees, which were worked with great success in the time of Louis the XIV., and have furnished, amongst other products of great beauty, twelve columns, of four metres in height, by fifty-five centimetres in diameter, which were ordered by the King of Prussia for the museum of Berlin, and have, in the short space of two months, been extracted, turned, polished and completed, at the extensive works of Bagneres Bigorre. Iron works have of late acquired great extension, and several important improvements have been introduced into the different processes. The information obtained by the superintending engineers, as to the manufacture of steam-engines, is divided under two heads; first, steam-engines and boilers used on land; and second, those used on board steam-vessels. The locomotives on railways are included in the first category. In the first class, we find 6,350 steam-boilers (5,613 of which are made in France) in use in 1843; out of this number, 1,698 afford steam for different purposes, and 4,652 supplied 3,369 steam-engines, 633 of which were of high, and 2,736 of low pressure, representing together a force of 127,542 horse power, and replacing the labor of 892,790 men. In the second class, we find that in 1843 the number of steamboats was 242, being thirteen more than in the previous year, and representing a force of 38,244 horse power. The weight transported by these steamboats, including that of passengers, is 1,487,787 tons."

## THE EFFECTS OF WAR ON AMERICAN COMMERCE.

The statements below, in relation to the revenue and tonnage of the United States during the last war with Great Britain, derived from the appendix to Albert Gallatin's letters on the Oregon question, forcibly illustrates the commercial disadvantages of settling national questions by an appeal to arms—a method equally opposed to Christianity and Common Sense.

"The actual receipts into the treasury, derived from customs, were in round numbers for the years 1812, 1813, 1814, respectively 8,960,000, 13,225,000, and 6,000,000 of dollars; and the nett revenue which accrued during those three years respectively amounted in 1812 to 13,142,000, in 1813 to 6,708,000, and in 1814 to 4,250,000 dollars. From the 1st of July, 1812, the rate of duties on importations was doubled; and in order to compare these receipts with those collected in peace time, they must be reduced for those three years respectively, to 7,470,000,* 6,600,000, and 3,000,000; or, if the revenue accrued be compared (which is the correct mode) to 9,850,000,* 3,354,000, and 2,125,000 dollars. At that time the duties accrued were, on account of the credit allowed, collected on an average only six or eight months later; and the unexpected importations in the latter half of the year 1812 in American vessels which arrived with British licenses, subsequent to the declaration of war, and to the act which doubled the rates of duties, swelled considerably the receipts of the year 1813. It was only in 1814 that the full effect of the war on the revenue derived from that source was felt.

"The diminution in the amount of American and foreign tonnage employed in the foreign trade of the United States, is strongly exhibited by the following statement:

| Tonnage in foreign trade, U. S. | American vessels. | Foreign vessels. | Total. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Year 1811,..... | 948,207 | 33,203 | 981,410 |
| " 1812,..... | 667,999 | 47,099 | 715,098 |
| " 1813,..... | 237,348 | 113,827 | 351,175 |
| " 1814,..... | 59,626 | 48,302 | 107,928 |

"And it must be recollected that during the last nine months of 1814, Great Britain was at peace with all the other powers of Europe, and that these were therefore neutrals. Yet they hardly ventured to trade with us.

"The amount of receipts into the treasury derived from customs, as well as that of the revenue accrued, exceeded, during the eleven years 1801 to 1811, 132,700,000 dollars, being an annual average of about 12,000,000 dollars. During the same eleven years, the average amount of tonnage employed in the foreign trade of the United States was 943,670 tons, of which 844,170 were in American, and 99,500 foreign vessels.

"Thus in the year 1814, the revenue derived from customs had been reduced to one-fourth part, (to nearly one-sixth part, if compared according to the revenue accrued, or the amount of importations,) the tonnage employed in the foreign trade of the United States to nearly one-ninth; and that of the American vessels employed in that trade, to one-fourteenth part of their respective average amount during the eleven years of peace."

## COPPER MINES OF NEW JERSEY.

The New Jersey copper mines, of which there are a number in the state, seem to be attracting attention, since the Lake Superior copper region has been brought into notice. We learn by the Hunterdon Gazette, that the Flemington copper mines, owned by Hugh Capner, Esq., are about to be reopened under the auspices of a gentleman who is interested in the Lake Superior mines. He has had the ore from Mr. Capner's mines thoroughly tested, and it is pronounced to be of a very superior quality. The Gazette adds, that the suspension of the working of them when before open, arose from pecuniary embarrassments, produced by the pressure and panic, which at that time extended throughout the Union.

Large deposits of copper ore have been heretofore found near Somerville, New Brunswick, Woodbridge, Belleville, and other places in the state of New Jersey. The old Schuyler Mine, near Belleville, on the left bank of the Passaic, and within five miles of the city of Newark, was discovered as early as 1719; and as the policy of Great Britain at that time prohibited every species of manufactures in the colonies, the ore was exported

* Estimated rate for 1812.

in a crude state to England. From the books of the discoverer, (Arent Schuyler,) it appears that before the year 1731, he had shipped 1,386 tons to the British copper works. Some thirty years afterwards, as runs the history, the mine was leased to a company, and Josiah Hornblower, Esq., the eminent English engineer, (and the father of the present chief justice,) came over with a steam-engine, of the imperfect construction then in use, to prosecute the enterprise. This is believed to have been the first steam-engine put in operation in this country. The mine was worked profitably for some four years, when a dismissed workman destroyed it by fire. Another company in England, acquainted with the superior quality of the ore, obtained permission from the crown to construct works for smelting and refining copper, and offered Mr. Schuyler £100,000 for his estate, including the mine. This he refused, but proposed to join them in rebuilding the works. But the revolution defeated the project. Several similar efforts have been made to work the mine since, but failed through adverse circumstances. The ore is said to be very rich, having yielded from 60 to 70 per cent of copper. The vein it is said will produce over 100 tons of ore annually.

## SMUGGLING OF GOODS IN SPAIN.

Although the Spaniards have a dislike, as we are told, to foreigners and foreign productions, yet the latter necessarily find their way into Spain, because she has no productions of her own, and must have them. But they hate custom-houses and custom-house officers as much as they do foreigners; and they also prefer a smuggled article, even if it is a foreign production; hence it is that there is no scene in Spanish life without a smuggler, at least so say the English. The peasant smuggles through necessity, the rich man through avarice, or the pleasure of cheating the revenue. Even the queen, we are told, robs her own exchequer, by wearing contraband finery. The whole southern coast, says a writer in the Foreign Quarterly, from Barcelona to Cadiz, is perpetually transformed, at night, into a strand for the loading of contraband goods. It is estimated that there are not less than 400,000 smugglers hovering perpetually about the mountains near the sea-coast, who descend at night to hold communion with proscribed foreign smugglers, and receive from them the materials for rendering millions of the Spanish population comfortable, free of duty. The annual amount of cotton goods smuggled into Spain, if we may believe Marlioni, a Spanish senator, is more than $13,000,000.

## INCREASE OF NATIONAL WEALTH IN GREAT BRITAIN.

In an article on the annual accumulation of capital in the London Economist's Railway Monitor of the 4th of October, 1845, we meet with the following extraordinary instances of extension: In 1820, the whole of the shipping belonging to the United Kingdom was 2,648,593 tons; at the commencement of last year it had increased to 3,587,387 tons, notwithstanding all the ships that during that 24 years have been worn out, or lost at sea. In 1820, Great Britain had cotton factories capable of working up 151,000,000 lbs. of cotton wool, and now they are so extended, that last year she worked up more than 700,000,000 lbs. In 1820, she had woollen factories capable of working up 7,691,000 lbs. of foreign sheep's wool, which are now increased to 59,493,000 lbs. of foreign wool, independent of the increase which has in the meantime taken place in the home growth. The silk, linen, and other manufacturing pursuits have extended in a similar way; and this has all been done by the annual investment of the savings of the country, either in absolute extension of mills, or in improvements in the productive power of machinery. The declared value of British exports in 1820, was £35,568,000, and the official value of her imports £31,484,000; but last year her exports had risen to £58,584,000, and her imports to £75,441,555.

## THE FRENCH COMMERCIAL MARINE.

The following statement of the "French merchant marine," as compared with England and the United States, is from the "Paris Siecle."

"Previous to the wars of the revolution, the effective of the commercial service of France was 500,000 tons. According to the customs report, it increased to 604,000 for the year 1844. This augmentation, however, is not proportioned to the development of the industrial activity. It appears yet more moderate when compared with the enormous increase of the marines of our rivals. In 1788, the tonnage of the commercial navy of England was 1,120,000 tons; at present it is 3,000,000. The United States in 1841 had 2,130,000 tons. Thus it will be seen that our effective is but a sixth of that of Great Britain, and a quarter of that of the United States. During the last five years, the loss in our merchant service has been considerable, since its tonnage in 1844 showed a decrease of 69,000 tons when compared with 1839. In the year 1839, France possessed 15,600 vessels; she now has but 13,679. Of this number, 8,900 are under 30 tons; 2,852 from 30 to 99; and among the 1,708 which are described as vessels of from 99 to 300 tons, one-quarter at most are fit to make long voyages. Add to this number 219 large vessels of from 300 to 600 tons, and we shall have about 652 large vessels capable of carrying heavy merchandise and performing long voyages. We do not possess a single ship of 700 tons, whilst England sends to her colonies whole fleets of ships, each of 1,200 tons or more. In 1836, France had 861 ships of from 200 to 800 tons; in 1840, 726; in 1841, 658; in 1843, 655; and at the close of 1844, we had but 652 of from 200 to 600 tons. Thus our privateers have drawn from our commerce in the course of eight years, 209 of of our large vessels. Those of less tonnage have undergone the same process.

The following table, embracing a period of five years, will show that whilst our merchant service has continued gradually to decrease, that of foreign nations has augmented in a proportionate ratio.

| | FRENCH COMMERCE. Tons. | FOREIGN COMMERCE. Tons. |
|---|---|---|
| 1840,..... | 907,000 | 1,683,000 |
| 1841,..... | 871,000 | 1,886,000 |
| 1842,..... | 811,000 | 1,901,000 |
| 1843,..... | 698,000 | 1,941,000 |
| 1844,..... | 770,000 | 2,031,000 |

"These facts speak for themselves. It is an incontestible fact, that since the accession to power of the present deplorable cabinet, the losses of our commercial navy may be added to the *desaveux* of the war navy. If the Chambers of Commerce of our great ports were charged to reply to the assertion contained in the speech from the throne respecting the increase of public prosperity, we are well assured what that language would be."

## LOUISIANA LAW OF ARREST FOR DEBT.

A principle relative to the law of arrest, of some interest to strangers visiting New Orleans, has recently been decided by Judge Buchanan, of the District Court, in the case of D. Prosky, *vs.* D. Hansborough. The defendant, who had been arrested, took a rule on the plaintiff to show cause why he should not be released from custody, and the writ of arrest be quashed, on the ground that the plaintiff, being a non-resident creditor, had no right to arrest the defendant, who was a citizen of another state, viz., Mississippi. It was proved on the trial, that D. Prosky, the plaintiff, had removed from Rodney, in Mississippi, to New Orleans, about two months previous to the institution of the suit, where he had rented a room, and opened business as a broker and commission merchant. The domicil of defendant was admitted to be in Mississippi. Upon these facts the court decided: First—That the plaintiff was not a resident of Louisiana, the acts of 1816 and of 1818 requiring an "uninterrupted residence of twelve months," to give a legal domicil to any stranger coming into Louisiana. Second—That the defendant being a citizen of another state, viz., of Mississippi, could not be held to bail under the act of 1840, by a non-resident creditor. The judgment of the court was accordingly rendered, making the rule absolute, and discharging the defendant from imprisonment.

## TRICKS IN THE TOBACCO TRADE.

The New Orleans Commercial Times has recently published several communications from correspondents, exposing dishonest tricks in the tobacco trade of that city. In that valuable commercial journal of the 30th January, we find an article on the subject, which the editor informs us "is from a source of the highest respectability." The writer states it as a well known fact that many lots of tobacco were sold in the New Orleans market, during the last season, which, when compared with the samples, showed a difference in quality of from one to four cents per pound. One small lot of cigar leaf was shipped to Richmond, which cost 7½c. When opened in that market, it was found to be common factory lugs, not worth more than 2½c. per pound. Another parcel was sent to Marseilles, which resulted in the same manner. "Such gross, mysterious errors," adds the writer, "could not have originated with the inspectors; unless, indeed, they were imposed upon by the knowing ones of the warehouse. By this epithet, is understood, the person who draws the sample from the hogshead, on which the inspectors pass their judgment. An individual who is blessed with a faculty of drawing from the hogshead under inspection, the best portion of the tobacco, and thereby misrepresenting its quality, is denominated *par excellence*, 'a fine sampler.'"

The closing remarks of the writer in the "Commercial Times," are mostly of the consideration of the appointing power in every state, where inspectors of merchandise are required or authorized by law. He says:—

"With regard to the appointment of inspectors, there is no great diversity of opinion. They should be chosen for their abilities for the office, and not as the political friends of the party that may happen to be in power. Political faith cannot be deemed a good reason why a man should be a competent judge of tobacco. Commerce and politics have little sympathy for each other. We require men who know their business, it matters not to what political party they belong, or whether they belong to any party. The tobacco trade of this city is immense, and yearly increasing in importance. The whole management of the business, at this port, is radically wrong, and requires a thorough reform. That enormous frauds have been practised, none will deny. Let us guard against the abuses for the future. Let the merchants take this matter in hand—vindicate the character of our city from the imputations cast upon it, and establish this important branch of commerce on a basis that will insure justice to all."

## THE HOP TRADE OF NEW ENGLAND.

Returns are received from four of the principal inspectors in the New England States, one in Massachusetts, and three in New Hampshire; these returns foot up 3,240 bales, against 3,108 bales in the last year. From five other inspectors no returns have as yet been received. The whole crop of the New England States last year was 4,350; this year it will vary but little from that amount. The crop of the State of New York last year was 6,000 bales, thus making the whole crop of the United States 10,350 bales. There was exported in 1844 6,000 bales, which left the consumption of this country 4,350 bales—just the growth of the New England States. The principal part of the 6,000 bales exported in 1844, was from New York; the exports from Boston were chiefly to Havre, London, Gottenburg and Hamburg—invoiced generally at 14c. per pound, and the result of the shipments, a loss of about one-half. Now, calling the crop of the New England States this year 4,250 bales—3,800 bales have already passed for consumption, and there now remain, chiefly in second hands, 450 bales only. The crop in New York last year was 6,000 bales, against an estimated crop of 4,000 this year—which shows a deficiency of 2,000 bales. There have been exported this year, to the present time, 380 bales, which leaves on hand 3,620. Deduct therefrom 700 bales, the quantity which is still wanting for home consumption, and there remains 2,920, which, added to the 450 bales now remain-

ing in Boston, and there are left 3,370 bales over the consumption of last year. Prices of hops commenced in 1844, at 9½ a 10½c. per pound, which advanced by speculation to 14c. Duty in England, same year, £143,000. This year prices commenced at 9½ a 10½c., and have been advanced by speculation, in Boston, to 25c., and New York to 30 a 35c. per pound—English duty now estimated at £160,000.

## PORT OF LAFAYETTE, LOUISIANA.

Lafayette City, the capital of Jefferson parish, is situated on the north side of the Mississippi river, but two miles west by south of the city of New Orleans. Though the capital of another parish, it is virtually a continuation of New Orleans, which joins it on the north-east. The New Orleans Commercial Bulletin says there is scarcely a visible line of demarcation between the two cities, for the suburbs of each absolutely come in contact, the houses respectively being on the same line, though at intervals more or less great; and before many years shall elapse, the eye will not be able to detect a break in the dwellings, warehouses, and other erections along the river front, from the Triangle Buildings, to the uppermost part of Delasisse.

Lafayette, a few years ago, adds the Bulletin, was almost a waste. By the skill, public spirit, indomitable energy and enterprise of her citizens, she has emerged from the swamp, cleared herself from the forest timber, which trammelled her in every part, and organized herself as a worthy compeer of New Orleans, under whose very shadow she has risen, progressed and prospered. In 1833, the first year of her incorporation, the revenue of the city of Lafayette, from all sources, amounted to only $1,450. Three years ago, the receipts had increased to $55,000; last year to $73,000; and the income of 1846 is now estimated, on data sufficiently accurate to lead one to believe in it, as a fixed fact, at $100,000! Here is an increase of nearly 70 per cent in the revenue of a city whose existence only dates from a period of thirteen years back.

## THE COTTON MANUFACTURE IN FRANCE.

The Commerce publishes the following details relative to the manufacture of cotton twist in France:—

"It is not long since our manufacturers have succeeded in spinning cotton thread sufficiently fine for tulles and fine muslins. The greater part of the twist used in those manufactures was smuggled into France from England, and it became necessary to permit them to be imported on the payment of a duty. An ordinance of the year 1834, sanctioned by the bill of the 2nd of July, 1836, admitted spun cotton of No. 143 (170 English) and over, on payment of a uniform duty of 7f. 70c. the kilogramme (2lb. weight) plain thread, and 80f. 80c. twisted thread. It is against this duty that the French spinners remonstrate, alleging the change in manufactures that has arisen since the year 1836. Since that period, several factories for producing fine cotton thread have been established in Lille, and not only do we spin finer thread, but we are enabled to sell it at a reduced price. For example, at the exposition of 1827, No. 180 was sold at 20f. the pound weight. It fell successively to 18f. in 1834, to 16f. in 1839, and at present it is sold at 10f. 50c. to 11f., which represents a reduction of three-fifths within fifteen years. It is on account of this improvement that the spinners demand a modification of the existing tariff, and they further state that the fixed duty does not sufficiently protect the higher numbers. In 1836 the fixed duty was framed with a view of reaching the numbers from 143 to 190, as our spinners at that period could not produce anything superior. But at present we produce the numbers 180 to 200, and there are some establishments which produce the numbers from 200 to 300. Our manufacturers, therefore, desire that a graduated scale of duties be formed proportioned to the fineness of cotton thread, in the same manner as it is applied to flaxen thread. The manufacturers of fine muslin and of tulle are opposed to this arrangement. They assert that the present tariff has produced such favorable results that it would be injurious to the manufacturers to make any change. Such is the state of the question which has been referred to the councils-general for their consideration."

# THE BOOK TRADE.

1.—*Contributions to the Edinburgh Review.* By FRANCIS JEFFREY, now one of the Judges of the Court of Sessions in Scotland. Four volumes complete in one. Philadelphia: Carey & Hart.

The "Edinburgh Review" has, for nearly half a century, sustained very high rank, and has, unquestionably, been conducted with more learning and ability than any similar work. Its contributions have been drawn from the leading minds of England; Scott, Sydney Smith, Brougham, Macaulay, Stephens, Carlyle, and a host of brilliant names too numerous to be mentioned, have, from time to time, added to the value and interest of its pages. Jeffrey, whose contributions to the Review are embraced in this volume, wrote the first article in the first number, which appeared in October, 1802, and sent his last contribution to it in October, 1840. He was sole editor from 1803 till late in 1839, and during that period was a large and regular contributor. During all that time he has sustained the reputation of the first review writer of the age. His contributions include a wide range of topics, embracing general literature, literary biography, history, and historical memoirs, poetry, philosophy of the mind, metaphysics and jurisprudence, novels, tales, and prose works of fiction, general politics, &c. The papers of Jeffrey are not confined to the task of pronouncing on the mere literary merits of the works reviewed, but he goes deeply into principles, and takes large and general views of all the important questions to which the works under review relate. We cannot better express our opinion of these collections of essays, than in the language of the author, in one of his reviews. "This, on the whole, is an excellent book; and we venture to anticipate that it will be an enduring one. Neither do we hazard this prediction lightly, or without a full consciousness of all that it implies. We are perfectly aware that there are few modern works that are likely to verify it; and that it probably could not be extended with safety to so many as one in a hundred, even of those which we praise."

2.—*Journey to Ararat.* By Dr. FRIEDRICH PARROT, Professor of Natural Philosophy in the University of Dorpat, Russian Imperial Counsellor of State, Knight of the Order of St. Anne, &c. With Map, and Wood-cuts. Translated by W. D. COOLEY. Harper & Brothers' New Miscellany.

The publishers of this work have been singularly successful in the selection of the eight first volumes of the series. It is thus far composed of works of a permanent and standard value, and the extraordinary low price at which they are afforded, places them within the reach of persons of moderate means. The sacred associations, and the interest attaching to the first ascent by a modern traveller, is acknowledged by all. Ararat, though high, is yet inferior in altitude to many of the passes of the Himmaleh; its icy head may be steep, but yet, that resolute man can climb the narrowest ridge of the steepest ice, was proved in the ascent of the Jungfrau by M. Agassiz, Mr. Forbes, and others, in 1841. The result of M. Parrot's scientific investigations are here given complete, and the work abounds with the the observations and statements of a learned, patient and philosophical mind, intent on the objects of its researches. The large and handsome map in front, and the neatly engraved illustrations scattered over the volume, add much to the beauty of the book, while they enhance its value to the student.

3.—*Theology Explained and Defended in a Series of Sermons.* By TIMOTHY DWIGHT, S. T. D., L. L. D. With a Memoir of the Life of the Author. In four volumes. New York: Harper & Brothers.

The author of this system of theology, the text-book in most orthodox colleges at home, and in many abroad, claims a high rank among men of that class. These volumes, comprising his systematic sermons, cost their author much labor and research, and were, at the time of their delivery, favorite discourses with the public at large, and with his pupils; many of whom, as we learn from his memoir, took notes of them every Sabbath. Their primary object is to explain and prove what he deemed the great truths of theology; and their second, to enforce them on the conscience, and show their practical influence on the heart and life. They are written in a clear, bold, and forcible style, and show how a mind naturally fond of the imagery can, when required by circumstances, bring itself into subjection to a severe discipline. The character of Dr. Dwight, as exhibited in the memoir, at the commencement, must commend itself to the good and true of all sects and parties. The purity of his sentiments and language was equally remarkable and exemplary. But this is not the place either to discuss his character or review his theology. We may add, however, that the publishers have produced a very handsome edition of his works in four large octavo volumes, each containing about 600 pages, which they afford at $6, being greatly reduced in price from any former edition.

4.—*Lives of Distinguished American Naval Officers.* By J. FENNIMORE COOPER, Author of the "Spy," "The Pilot," &c. Vol. I. Philadelphia: Carey & Hart.

This volume contains the lives of Bainbridge, Somers, Shaw, Shubrick, and Preble, written with apparent impartiality, and with the distinguished ability of the author. It is well, perhaps, to preserve these memorials of "naval glory," as matter of history; but the triumphs of peace, and progress in the art of saving men's lives, is far more to our taste.

5.—*The Farmer's Dictionary; a Vocabulary of the Technical Terms Recently Introduced into Agriculture and Horticulture, from Various Sources, and also a Compend of Practical Farming; the latter chiefly from the works of the Rev. W. L. Rham, London, Low, and Jonalt, and the Most Eminent American Authors.* Edited by D. P. GARDNER, M. D., Honorary Member of several Agricultural Societies. With Numerous Illustrations. New York: Harper & Brothers.

There is an unceasing demand for works of this class; and there is not, perhaps, a better method of communicating knowledge in relation to the various arts of life, than through the medium of the encyclopædia or the dictionary. They are easy of reference, and we turn at once to the subject on which we require precise information. The present work appears to be well adapted to the wants of the agriculturist. It is not voluminous, but furnishes, in a clear and comprehensive form, just that kind and amount of information, that every person who tills an acre of land, plants an orchard, keeps a cow or a horse, &c., will find almost indispensable. The compiler has availed himself of the labors of the most recent and distinguished practical and scientific agriculturists in Europe and America.

6.—*Notes of a Journey from Cornhill to Grand Cairo, by Way of Lisbon, Athens, Constantinople, and Jerusalem; Performed in the Steamers of the Peninsular and Oriental Company.* By Mr. M. A. TITMARSH, Author of the "Irish Sketch Book," &c. New York: Wiley & Putnam's Library of Choice Reading, No. 58.

Whether this journey was actually performed by Mr. Titmarsh, *alias* Thackeray, in his own proper person, or only in imagination, in the author's study, is of matter of little moment, so long as it is an interesting book, and which we venture to anticipate will be a popular one. Indeed, it is so already; as all in the circle of our acquaintance who have read, uniformly pronounce it a delightful book, and every way worthy a place in the "Library of Choice Reading."

7.—*History of the English Revolution of 1640, commonly called the Great Rebellion, from the accession of Charles I. to his death.* By F. GUIZOT, Prime Minister of France, author of "History of Civilization in Europe," etc. etc. Translated by WILLIAM HAZLITT. New York: D. Appleton & Co. Philadelphia: G. S. Appleton.

M. Guizot has long been regarded one of the most distinguished men of France. A professor of History in a prominent institution of that country, he formerly earned a wide reputation in a series of lectures which were afterwards published under the title of the "General History of Civilization in Europe," and he has since gradually advanced to his present commanding position as prime minister of France. The peculiar cast of Guizot's character as a historian, is marked by acuteness, condensation of style, comprehensiveness of view, and a logical precision by which he accurately follows out general causes to their consequences, as well as by high moral principle. The present work exhibits the peculiar traits of this historian, and presents the leading events in that great revolution which occupies so large a space in the history of England. The present volume is embraced in the admirable series of books in course of publication under the general title of "Appleton's Literary Miscellany."

8.—*The Book of Peace; a Collection of Essays on War and Peace.* New York: M. W. Dodd.

This volume is well-timed, and the arguments and considerations in favor of peace principles are exhibited in a clear and convincing light. The contents of the volume are culled from a wide as well as luxuriant field—from the gardens of intellect and learning in both hemispheres, from some of the best and purest writers in the last three centuries, from men of every faith, Protestant and Catholic, Orthodox and Unitarian. The subject is itself a sort of Delos, whither the best spirits of every party, creed and clime, gather, to blend in sweet and hallowed sympathy; and the volume exhibits a constellation of the peaceful pleiades, pouring their mingled splendor on this common theme of beneficence, humanity, and Christian patriotism. We commend it to such of our statesmen as would embroil this nation in a foolish and wicked war with England.

9.—*The History of Ireland, Ancient and Modern, taken from the most Authentic Records, and dedicated to the Irish Brigade.* By the Abbe MACGEOGHEGAN. Translated from the French, by FARRICK O'KELLY, Esq. New York: D. & J. Sadlier.

This is a labored and extended history of Ireland from the pen of a learned divine of that country. It embraces much of interest to those who are of the Emerald Isle, as well as the general scholar. Written in a clear style, it is judiciously arranged, and gives us some of the most prominent circumstances connected with a people which possesses many very noble and estimable traits of character, and from which our own country has derived a considerable portion of its population and its productive industry. The work is comprised in about seven hundred royal octavo pages, printed on a clear, bold type, and a very substantial white paper; and, altogether, forms one of the handsomest books produced in this country.

10.—*Philanthropy; or, My Mother's Bible. Founded on an incident which happened in New York.* New York: Harper & Brothers.

Whatever objections may exist in the minds of many honest and good people to tales of the imagination intended for the amusement and instruction of the young, they will not apply to this little volume, because it is founded on fact, and is so simple in narrative and so truthful in detail, and, withal, so full of love and kindness, that its influence cannot be otherwise than salutary on all those who may choose to read it; and we hope the number will not be small.

11.—*Forecastle Tom; or, the Landsman turned Sailor.* By MARY S. B. DANA, author of the "Northern and Southern Harpe," "The Young Sailor," etc. New York: Harper & Brothers.

The life of the sailor, so full of daring and adventure, and his character, a mixed one, of course, with many noble and generous traits, and not without his foibles and vices, the latter too often the result of unfavorable circumstances, affords materials out of which to work up the most amusing, and at the same time, the most instructive narrative. Mrs. Dana's story is well told, and the lessons of wisdom and goodness it inculcates, are well worth remembering.

12.—*Goodrich's National Geography.* New York: Huntington & Savage.

This work appears to have been got up with great care on the part of the author, and liberal expense on that of the publishers. It may be commended as a model in respect to all the mechanical departments, paper, printing, engravings, &c. In respect to the contents of the book, we may state that it appears to us to be prepared with skill, taste, and knowledge of the subject. The author has displayed his usual tact in selecting what is to be taught, and the manner of teaching it. As the work is designed as a manual for teaching, and is all to be learnt by the pupil, superfluous matter is rejected, especially in the maps; so that, while much time and trouble will be saved to the scholar and teacher, the subject will be more thoroughly mastered, more clearly considered, and more indelibly impressed on the memory. The *globe map* attached to the work is a happy contrivance, so simple and yet so useful, that we are astonished it has never been thought of before. We regard this feature of the work as an invaluable endowment to our schools and the cause of education.

13.—*Artists of America.* By C. EDWARDS LESTER. New York: Baker & Scribner.

This serial has reached its third number, and embraces comprehensive sketches of the lives of Washington Allston, Henry Inman, Benjamin West, and Gilbert Stuart, with beautiful outline portraits of each. Mr. Lester is an ardent and enthusiastic admirer of every thing American, and besides, he brings to his present enterprise a highly cultivated mind, and a just and discriminating taste. The numbers of the work now before us, are simple and chaste in design, and highly finished in execution. The object of the work, as we have before stated, is a more general diffusion of the most authentic information relative to our artists and their works, to make them better known at *home*. The publishers have expressed their determination to spare no pains or means requisite to make this a work which no artist or friend of American art will be unwilling to favor.

14.—*Elocution; or, Mental and Vocal Philosophy: Involving the Principles of Reading and Speaking; and designed for the Development and Cultivation of both Body and Mind, in Accordance with the Nature, Uses, and Destiny of Man. Illustrated by Two or Three Hundred Choice Anecdotes, Three Thousand Oratorical and Poetical Readings; Five Thousand Proverbs, Maxims, and Laconics, and Several Hundred Elegant Engravings.* By Prof. BRONSON, A. M., M. D. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co.

The copious title-page to this volume, which we have quoted entire, is a very good index of its contents and character. That Professor Bronson has made some important discoveries in the philosophy of elocution, and been singularly successful as a teacher, throughout the United States, is very generally admitted by all who have any knowledge of the subject. This volume is designed to explain and illustrate the principles of his system; and is the fifth edition or sixteenth thousand published. Aside from its value as a work of instruction, it is one of the most entertaining books of the class ever published.

15.—*Perranzabuloe, the Lost Church Found; or, the Church of England not a New Church, but Ancient, Apostolic and Independent, and a Protesting Church, Nine Hundred Years before the Reformation.* By Rev. C. T. COLLINS TRELAWNEY, A. M., late Rector of Timsbury, Somerset, and formerly Fellow of Baliol College, Oxford. New York: Stanford & Swords.

This is the first American, from the fifth London edition of a work that has attracted considerable notice in England. The design of the author, as may be gathered from the the title-page quoted, and more fully from the volume that follows, is to show the antiquity of the Episcopal Church in that branch of it now known as the English. The pretensions of Rome are discussed with as much charity as we should expect from one who holds to a different church. The work presents, in a comprehensive form, many interesting historical notes, and the positions of the author are sustained by an array of data, that will, no doubt, prove entirely satisfactory to the American Churchman.

16.—*A Debate on Slavery; held in the City of Cincinnati, on the First, Second, Third, and Sixth Days of October, 1845, Upon the Question: Is Slavery in itself Sinful, and the relation between Master and Slave a Sinful Relation?* New York: Mark H. Newman.

We have, in this volume of nearly five hundred pages, a discussion on the subject of slavery, by two members of the Presbyterian denomination. The affirmative was supported by the Rev. J. Blanchard, pastor of the Sixth (new school) Presbyterian Church, Cincinnati, and the negative by N. L. Rice, D. D., of the Central (old school) Presbyterian church of that city. The subject is ably discussed on both sides. The debate was conducted with constant reference to publication, and everything pertinent to the subject, was urged in as concise a manner as the mode of debate would admit. Two reporters of eminence, A. J. Stansbury, of Washington city, and E. P. Cranch, of Cincinnati, were employed, and the report was written out by them, and revised by the parties, and is here given with a complete index.

17.—*The Fairy Book; Illustrated with Eighty one Cuts by Adams.* New York: Harper & Brothers.

This book will answer well its design, not the highest, but innocent, perhaps, that of amusement for the young. It contains some of the old fairy stories we read with pleasure in our boyhood, and some of more recent date, translated expressly for this work. The engravings by Adams are exquisite—not surpassed by any that we have before seen.

18.—*A Manual, Analytical and Synthetical, on Orthography and Definition.* By James M. McElligott, Principal of the Mechanics' Society School, New York. New York: Mark H. Newman.

This manual of instruction appears to possess considerable merit. It has been examined by such men as Chancellor Frelinghuysen, Dr. Reese, and other eminent friends of education, who have each expressed a decidedly favorable opinion as to its general excellence, and adaptation to the purpose for which it is designed. The Young Analyzer, a smaller volume, presents an easy outline of the course of instruction more fully developed in this (larger) work.

19.—*Elements of Moral Philosophy, on the basis of the Ten Commandments; containing a Complete System of Moral Duties.* By Leicester A. Sawyer, President of Central College, Ohio.

We can conceive of no better or higher standard of moral philosophy or ethics, than that embraced in the summing up of the ten commandments, viz: to love God supremely, and our neighbor as ourselves; and just in the degree the writer of the present treatise has embraced this standard of moral excellence, must all pure-minded, honest men, approve and adopt it. There is much in the volume that meets with our most hearty approval, while there are some things that we consider irrelevant to the subject, and which belong rather to the popular theology, than to a work devoted to moral philosophy, and designed as a text-book for colleges, and other seminaries of learning.

20.—*The Churchman's Reasons for his Faith and Practice.* By Rev. N. S. Richardson, A. M., author of "Reasons Why I am a Churchman." New York: James A. Sparks.

The volume with the above title will commend itself to Churchmen generally. It seems not to have been written in a controversial spirit, and agitates neither the questions of Puseyism or Low Churchism, but recommends the principle of "*Laissez faire*" sufficiently to bring those points which are most settled and important more and more before the Church; urging the necessity of rather regarding the true purpose of a Churchman to do good, as far as his knowledge extends. The author earnestly recommends a return to the principles which the Church, in all its divisions, must have in common. Although the book cannot claim the credit of originality, still it will doubtless please every true Christian to see that, among the agitations and commotions of the Church, its great end, and that of all sects—the furtherance of pure religion—is not wholly lost sight of.

21.—*The Matricide.* By John K. Dube, U. S. N. New York: W. H. Graham.

In this story all the elements of the Monk Lewis school of romance, love, murder and seduction are combined and worked up. This, to us, seems not the most valuable kind of production, and however much it may bear the marks of genius, we think it could be far better directed than it is here.

22—"*The Harbinger; devoted to Social and Political Progress,*" published by the Brook Farm Phalanx, aside from the beneficent principles it advocates in a truly catholic spirit, is, in our opinion, the best literary journal in the country. Its articles are singularly able, and leave the impress of minds filled with the highest inspiration of goodness and genius. The notices of new books are discriminating and just.

BOOKS IN PAPER COVERS.

23.—*Mary de Clifford, a Novel.* By Sir Edgerton Brydges. Complete in One Volume. Philadelphia: Carey & Hart.

24.—*Wild Sports in Europe, Asia and Africa.* By Lt. Colonel E. Napier, (late 45th Regiment,) author of "Scenes and Sports in Foreign Lands," "Excursions along the Shores of the Mediterranean," "Reminiscences of Syria," etc. E. Ferrett & Co's Cabinet Series of Entertaining Books, No. 1.

25.—*The Half-yearly Abstract of the Medical Sciences: being a Practical and Analytical Digest of the Contents of the Principal British and Continental Medical Works Published in the preceding six Months. Together with a Series of Critical Reports on the Progress of Medicine, and the Collateral Sciences During the Same Period.* Edited by W. H. Rankin, M. D., Cantab Physician to the General Hospital. Part 2, Vol. July to December, 1845. New-York: J. & H. G. Langley,

26.—*The Incognito: or, Sins and Peccadilloes.* By Don T. De Trueba, Author of "Romance of History, Spain," "The Castilian," etc. Philadelphia: Carey & Hart.

27.—*Count Julian; or, The Last Days of the Goth. A Historical Romance.* By the Author of "Guy Rivers," "The Yemassee," etc. Baltimore: William Taylor & Co.

28.—*Guy Rivers: A Tale of Georgia.* By the Author of "Martin Faber," "Atalantis," etc. Harpers' Pocket Editions of Novels, No. 14.

29.—*The Step-Mother, a Romance.* By G. P. R. James, Esq. In 2 Parts. Nos. 74 and 75 Harper's Library of Select Novels.

30.—*The Elves. Translated from the German of Tieck.* By Thomas Carlyle. With other Tales and Sketches. No. 73 Harper's Library of Select Novels.

31.—*The Adventures of a French Gentleman.* By the author of "Pickwick Abroad." With numerous Illustrations. New York: Wilson & Co.

32.—*The Treasury of History, No. 9.* New York: Daniel Adee. [This number concludes the History of Spain, with a brief description of Portugal, Austria and German States, and Norway, Sweden, and Denmark. Russia, and her tyranny over Poland, the Cantons of Switzerland, Italy, and the Bridge of Sighs of Venice, are also pictured.]

THE

# MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE,

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HUNT'S

# MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE.

MAY, 1846.

## Art. I.—THE INFLUENCE OF CLIMATE ON LONGEVITY:

### WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO LIFE INSURANCE.

PART II.

[*The availableness of tables of population, as the basis of calculations for life insurance, is an interesting and important inquiry. As an aid to such inquiry, we give the following Tables of Mortality, some of which form the basis of the calculations of the British Life Insurance offices.

| Age. | Living. | Living. | Living. | Living. | Male. Living. | Female. Living. | Male. Living. | Female. Living. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 0 | ..... | 1,000 | 1,000 | ..... | 1,000 | 1,000 | 10,000 | 10,000 |
| 10 | 820 | 487 | 646 | 2,884 | 896 | 903 | 6,184 | 6,701 |
| 20 | 814 | 440 | 609 | 2,705 | 837 | 848 | 5,765 | 6,302 |
| 30 | 734 | 415 | 564 | 2,501 | 732 | 777 | 5,127 | 5,695 |
| 40 | 657 | 312 | 507 | 2,236 | 644 | 700 | 4,516 | 5,045 |
| 50 | 581 | 245 | 439 | 1,937 | 561 | 623 | 3,675 | 4,302 |
| 60 | 463 | 174 | 364 | 1,524 | 440 | 539 | 2,778 | 3,566 |
| 70 | 310 | 105 | 240 | 1,028 | 288 | 412 | 1,740 | 2,498 |
| 80 | 118 | 40 | 95 | 480 | 125 | 210 | 715 | 617 |
| 90 | 11 | 3 | 14 | 65 | 11 | 52 | 205 | 283 |

Note—In column 2, the calculations are from Desparcieux; 3, Northampton, Dr. Price; 4, Carlisle, Mr. Milne; 5, Equitable Experience, Mr. Davies; 6, 7, Mr. Finlayson's tables; 8, 9, Chester table.

For many years, the Northampton tables, given by Dr. Price, (in his "Observations on Reversionary Payments," published in 1771,) were the only tables in use in Great Britain. The Albion, Atlas, London Life, and other companies, made them the basis of their calculations.

Of late years, the Chester and Carlisle tables are more generally used by the British and American Life Insurance Companies. Among the latter, the "New England Mutual Life," judging from the premium table, must use a basis calculated from the probabilities of life in New England, the premiums being lower in the early, and higher in the more advanced periods of life, than in the British tables. Most of the other American Life companies appear to have charged premium in the following manner.

* The portion of this article within the brackets, has been added to the original essay whilst in course of publication in this Magazine.

The average of male and female probability of life being taken, (the rates of premium are adopted, on an estimate of 3 per cent on investments,) according to the Chester tables, a slight advance is charged on the early, and a gradually increasing advance on the later periods of life.

| | CHESTER TABLES AT 3 PER CENT. Ann. premium for life. | | AMERICAN TABLES. Ann. premium for life. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Age. | *Males.* | *Females.* | |
| 14,..... | $1,56 | $1,38 | $1,53 |
| 20,..... | 1,81 | 1,60 | 1,77 |
| 50,..... | 4,18 | 3,50 | 4,60 |

But, since all American funds may be invested at least at 5 per cent instead of 3 per cent, the American companies secure to themselves a profit on life premiums, varying from 20 per cent for the age of 14, to 11 per cent at the the age of 50 years. And these profits will accrue, if the probabilities of life are as great in the United States *now*, as they were in Chester from 1700 to 1774, the period embraced in the observations on which the Chester tables are calculated. Is this the case?

With a view to determine, by approximation, whether it is or not, the following view is, with deference, offered.

By the "Table of the Population of Belgium," given in the latter part of this article, it will be seen that the table of mortality (living,) bears a certain ratio to the table of population. The same ratio exists between the tables of mortality and population in France.* This ratio may be assumed as a constant fact.

From this fact we draw the plain inference, that a table of mortality may be calculated from a table of population. Let $m$ be the number sought, at a given age, in the table of mortality; let P be the number, in the known table of population, at the same age; $m$ must be some product of P. Let the multiplier be $x$, which may be greater or less than unity, or unity itself. Then, $m=Px$.

Obtaining the successive values of $x$ from the Belgian and French tables, I have constructed the following tables of mortality:—

| | NEW HAMPSHIRE. 1830. | NEW HAMPSHIRE. 1840. | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Age. | Males. *Living.* | Males. *Living.* | Difference per cent. |
| 5,..... | 8,653 | 8,806 | 1.765 |
| 10,..... | 7,407 | 7,896 | 6.601 |
| 15,..... | 6,214 | 6,463 | 4.001 |
| 20,..... | 5,115 | 5,345 | 4.496 |
| 30,..... | 3,582 | 3,952 | 10.32 |
| 40,..... | 2,436 | 2,723 | 11.51 |
| 50,..... | 1,486 | 1,736 | 16.82 |
| 60,..... | 848 | 922 | 8.726 |
| 70,†..... | 379 | 442 | 16.62 |

By comparing the above with the Chester tables, it appears that the 6,463 in New Hampshire, (1840,) at 15 years, produces only 1,736 at 50 years, whilst the Chester table would give 3,945 at 50, for 6,463 at 15 years. Hence, between 15 and 50 years, (among males,) the probabilities are one-half less in New Hampshire than in Chester. And, as the state selected is a favorable case, above the average of the states, it follows that the probabilities of life are much lower in the United States than is assumed as the basis of the American premium tables.

* Quetelet et Smits Recherch. sur la Reproduct., etc., p. 43.

† The values for the intervening ages between 5 and 10, &c., can be obtained by the method of interpolation.

This great disproportion in the risks, is constantly lessening by the *fact* observed by Dr. Spare, "that the average age of our population has, during the last 40 years, *been increasing.*"*

Some idea of the ratio of this increasing longevity, may be had from the column marked "Difference per cent," where it appears, that for an increase of 1.764 per cent at 5 years, there is an increase of 16.82 per cent at 50 years; and this, in the ten years between 1830 and 1840. If continued, this increment would place New Hampshire on a par with the Chester tables, in 25 years.

The following are the values of $x$, obtained by the process above indicated; being taken from the average of males and females, it must be somewhat too high for males, and too low for females. By multiplying the corresponding ages in the census table, the table of mortality will be obtained, approximately.

| Age. | | Age. | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 5 years, | $x=1.0156$ | 40 years. | $x=1.1936$ |
| 10 " | $x=1.0394$ | 50 " | $x=1.2158$ |
| 15 " | $x=1.0514$ | 60 " | $x=1.2674$ |
| 20 " | $x=1.0704$ | 70 " | $x=1.3196$ ] |
| 30 " | $x=1.1329$ | | |

We proceed to examine the census of the United States. The census of 1830 is selected.

The males and females are given in separate tables, because they make perceptible the ratio of the sexes at the different epochs of life.

The tables of Tucker have been taken; at the expense of considerable toil, I have reduced them to a basis of ten millions, (10,000,000) for each state and territory.

TABLE C.—CENSUS OF 1830, REDUCED TO A BASIS OF 10,000,000.

*Free White Males.*

| Years. | Maine. | N. Hamp. | Vermont. | Massachusetts. | R. Island. | Connecticut. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Below 5,† | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... |
| Above 5, | 8,306,240 | 8,520,139 | 8,448,902 | 8,653,304 | 8,505,947 | 8,951,117 |
| 10, | 6,869,438 | 7,187,600 | 7,068,572 | 7,398,075 | 7,230,061 | 7,426,525 |
| 15, | 5,598,240 | 5,911,777 | 5,810,543 | 6,221,196 | 6,040,111 | 6,176,904 |
| 20, | 4,484,049 | 4,778,770 | 4,682,605 | 5,105,071 | 4,861,170 | 5,022,404 |
| 30, | 2,740,782 | 3,162,451 | 2,952,091 | 3,119,339 | 3,003,526 | 3,192,989 |
| 40, | 1,659,080 | 2,041,173 | 1,824,871 | 1,916,812 | 1,819,720 | 2,031,459 |
| 50, | 933,799 | 1,219,670 | 1,080,767 | 1,113,614 | 1,045,398 | 1,220,221 |
| 60, | 474,122 | 669,255 | 577,192 | 604,467 | 570,074 | 671,746 |
| 70, | 177,218 | 283,370 | 205,288 | 254,709 | 251,872 | 287,223 |
| 80, | 45,762 | 70,861 | 47,819 | 65,602 | 63,684 | 66,922 |
| 90, | 4,735 | 6,788 | 3,645 | 5,902 | 6,170 | 6,014 |
| 100, | 99 | 305 | 214 | 33 | 0 | 349 |

* Dr. Spare shows that Massachusetts and Rhode Island give exceptions to this law. "These being long settled states, are about reaching their maximum proportion of population in the more advanced periods of life." If this reason were good, it should have been stated that they had reached their maximum in 1830, and advanced towards a minimum in 1840. I would hazard the opinion, that none of the states have yet reached their maximum of longevity, because none have reached the maximum of comforts which American institutions are destined to dispense. The falling off in the proportion of longevity (above 60,) in the states named, as well as in others of the "Old Thirteen," arises, undoubtedly, *from the diminished number of births in those states, during the revolutionary war.* This is shown in the sudden *decrement* in the ratio of increase of longevity in the above table of New Hampshire. Thus, war, as well as pestilence and famine, leaves its mark, which may be read from the statistics of a country.

† The number below 5 is obtained by subtracting those above 5 from 10,000,000.

TABLE C.—FREE WHITE MALES—Continued.

| Years. | New York. | New Jersey. | Pennsylvania. | Delaware. | Maryland. | Dis. of Col. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Below 5, | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... |
| Above 5, | 8,338,272 | 8,353,940 | 8,232,597 | 8,356,303 | 8,391,038 | 8,291,790 |
| 10, | 6,897,176 | 6,963,839 | 6,785,859 | 6,934,714 | 7,067,235 | 7,230,518 |
| 15, | 5,651,720 | 5,672,030 | 5,548,172 | 5,575,501 | 5,856,745 | 5,976,536 |
| 20, | 4,582,762 | 4,549,726 | 4,450,247 | 4,469,439 | 4,786,145 | 4,973,932 |
| 30, | 2,725,485 | 2,779,031 | 2,626,929 | 2,562,716 | 2,790,220 | 2,804,250 |
| 40, | 1,535,624 | 1,645,358 | 1,498,023 | 1,451,084 | 1,553,924 | 1,472,739 |
| 50, | 812,358 | 925,227 | 798,125 | 745,132 | 801,947 | 689,149 |
| 60, | 386,692 | 462,810 | 376,984 | 299,225 | 356,714 | 254,398 |
| 70, | 135,378 | 170,488 | 135,514 | 88,070 | 121,590 | 74,780 |
| 80, | 29,966 | 75,753 | 30,714 | 18,031 | 28,180 | 19,795 |
| 90, | 3,048 | 2,590 | 4,055 | 3,120 | 4,073 | 1,466 |
| 100, | 367 | 65 | 794 | 0 | 475 | 733 |

TABLE C.—FREE WHITE MALES—Continued.

| Years. | Virginia. | N. Carolina. | S. Carolina. | Georgia. | Alabama. | Mississippi. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Below 5, | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... |
| Above 5, | 8,296,975 | 8,020,184 | 8,076,617 | 7,584,800 | 7,739,866 | 7,940,705 |
| 10, | 6,618,754 | 6,494,152 | 6,527,992 | 6,035,924 | 6,204,335 | 6,492,449 |
| 15, | 5,376,695 | 5,201,356 | 5,269,340 | 5,088,747 | 5,002,129 | 5,298,015 |
| 20, | 4,312,828 | 4,124,215 | 4,399,209 | 4,097,887 | 4,056,995 | 4,357,750 |
| 30, | 2,562,962 | 2,451,225 | 2,495,773 | 2,345,242 | 2,327,370 | 2,476,594 |
| 40, | 1,512,359 | 1,475,166 | 1,425,277 | 1,291,116 | 1,202,336 | 1,272,229 |
| 50, | 840,136 | 839,320 | 786,968 | 668,557 | 604,560 | 643,264 |
| 60, | 401,379 | 393,038 | 354,786 | 298,040 | 248,113 | 228,548 |
| 70, | 143,539 | 140,397 | 121,684 | 96,801 | 75,396 | 64,222 |
| 80, | 37,895 | 34,547 | 28,965 | 23,694 | 16,765 | 15,060 |
| 90, | 6,037 | 7,030 | 6,130 | 4,766 | 2,982 | 286 |
| 100, | 747 | 118 | 1,072 | 652 | 297 | 0 |

TABLE C.—FREE WHITE MALES—Continued.

| Years. | Louisiana. | Tennessee. | Kentucky. | Ohio. | Indiana. | Illinois. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Below 5, | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... |
| Above 5, | 8,598,211 | 7,832,740 | 7,974,567 | 7,990,430 | 7,741,741 | 7,704,776 |
| 10, | 7,119,667 | 6,185,528 | 6,435,216 | 6,433,135 | 6,109,207 | 6,150,663 |
| 15, | 6,091,532 | 4,872,745 | 5,155,416 | 5,136,531 | 4,808,854 | 4,928,086 |
| 20, | 5,223,488 | 3,800,913 | 4,065,928 | 4,071,331 | 3,804,317 | 3,980,999 |
| 30, | 3,126,877 | 2,176,361 | 2,350,431 | 2,376,485 | 2,203,063 | 2,189,174 |
| 40, | 1,569,624 | 1,263,269 | 1,366,130 | 1,348,339 | 1,184,864 | 1,113,602 |
| 50, | 706,954 | 713,817 | 768,251 | 881,012 | 598,404 | 549,609 |
| 60, | 265,383 | 307,053 | 362,560 | 323,326 | 257,166 | 201,582 |
| 70, | 85,788 | 105,490 | 128,453 | 98,686 | 77,417 | 58,995 |
| 80, | 22,248 | 28,872 | 31,673 | 22,972 | 17,178 | 12,189 |
| 90, | 6,614 | 4,981 | 5,503 | 3,481 | 3,526 | 1,218 |
| 100, | 1,803 | 1,163 | 1,048 | 240 | 739 | 487 |

TABLE C.—FREE WHITE MALES—Continued.

| Years. | Missouri. | Michigan. | Arkansas. | Florida. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Below 5,..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... |
| Above 5,..... | 7,796,418 | 8,337,003 | 7,930,091 | 8,117,299 |
| 10,..... | 6,229,647 | 7,054,967 | 6,548,317 | 6,814,269 |
| 15,..... | 5,141,620 | 6,007,709 | 5,433,875 | 5,822,090 |
| 20,..... | 4,094,460 | 5,162,401 | 4,562,048 | 5,050,829 |
| 30,..... | 2,280,131 | 2,743,385 | 2,618,915 | 2,928,632 |
| 40,..... | 1,126,708 | 1,235,131 | 1,371,485 | 1,427,108 |
| 50,..... | 533,550 | 556,718 | 771,074 | 684,261 |
| 60,..... | 217,752 | 194,378 | 199,451 | 258,064 |
| 70,..... | 66,929 | 49,008 | 56,203 | 68,496 |
| 80,..... | 12,377 | 13,766 | 8,910 | 13,754 |
| 90,..... | 2,605 | 2,753 | 685 | 2,942 |
| 100,..... | 325 | 550 | 0 | 977 |

TABLE C.—FREE WHITE FEMALES.

| Years. | Maine. | N. Hamp. | Vermont. | Massachusetts. | R. Island. | Connecticut. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Below 5, | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... |
| Above 5, | 8,359,476 | 8,647,320 | 8,585,599 | 8,720,139 | 8,628,825 | 8,750,951 |
| 10, | 6,957,983 | 7,432,772 | 7,356,231 | 7,602,185 | 7,460,640 | 7,597,335 |
| 15, | 5,737,720 | 6,303,985 | 6,263,023 | 6,519,777 | 6,381,514 | 6,468,296 |
| 20, | 4,606,093 | 5,226,174 | 5,452,926 | 5,405,054 | 5,223,688 | 5,378,181 |
| 30, | 2,805,626 | 3,439,269 | 3,461,344 | 3,289,561 | 3,318,144 | 3,566,569 |
| 40, | 1,678,476 | 2,225,453 | 2,267,667 | 2,209,330 | 2,125,091 | 2,341,994 |
| 50, | 960,526 | 1,373,314 | 1,393,912 | 1,344,458 | 1,293,079 | 1,439,595 |
| 60, | 488,301 | 746,180 | 783,207 | 746,596 | 707,745 | 808,887 |
| 70, | 189,365 | 318,181 | 340,183 | 325,664 | 306,130 | 351,332 |
| 80, | 53,267 | 91,999 | 91,671 | 95,465 | 86,992 | 94,676 |
| 90, | 7,138 | 13,090 | 10,504 | 11,373 | 9,113 | 10,853 |
| 100, | 151 | 436 | 198 | 129 | 0 | 204 |

TABLE C.—FREE WHITE FEMALES—Continued.

| Years. | New York. | New Jersey. | Pennsylvania. | Delaware. | Maryland. | Virginia. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Below 5, | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... |
| Above 5, | 8,342,663 | 8,381,816 | 8,262,372 | 8,367,260 | 8,448,219 | 8,198,639 |
| 10, | 6,890,608 | 6,994,030 | 6,822,937 | 6,959,260 | 7,146,930 | 6,755,279 |
| 15, | 5,634,853 | 5,758,282 | 5,579,169 | 5,678,951 | 5,942,200 | 5,545,661 |
| 20, | 4,486,202 | 4,621,993 | 4,399,112 | 4,490,863 | 4,709,747 | 4,376,502 |
| 30, | 2,644,507 | 2,874,064 | 2,599,357 | 2,566,362 | 2,791,918 | 2,585,372 |
| 40, | 1,503,358 | 1,748,809 | 1,519,387 | 1,450,131 | 1,635,344 | 1,583,482 |
| 50, | 802,622 | 1,003,383 | 828,713 | 731,390 | 880,998 | 847,861 |
| 60, | 384,238 | 508,868 | 395,801 | 240,870 | 395,544 | 401,846 |
| 70, | 137,788 | 190,317 | 143,959 | 114,466 | 142,727 | 148,987 |
| 80, | 32,663 | 44,075 | 33,920 | 22,120 | 35,490 | 37,934 |
| 90, | 3,501 | 4,400 | 3,975 | 2,458 | 5,427 | 6,235 |
| 100, | 185 | 135 | 326 | 351 | 975 | 808 |

TABLE C.—FREE WHITE FEMALES—Continued.

| Years. | N. Carolina. | S. Carolina. | Georgia. | Alabama. | Mississippi. | Louisiana. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Below 5, | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... |
| Above 5, | 8,154,589 | 8,136,809 | 7,839,664 | 7,617,238 | 7,710,341 | 8,025,805 |
| 10, | 6,706,070 | 6,645,409 | 6,269,607 | 5,963,600 | 6,090,336 | 6,459,123 |
| 15, | 5,489,878 | 5,441,642 | 5,015,966 | 4,725,331 | 4,791,984 | 5,158,188 |
| 20, | 4,332,797 | 4,326,449 | 3,869,637 | 3,698,531 | 3,650,293 | 3,966,080 |
| 30, | 2,574,739 | 2,508,643 | 2,194,400 | 1,999,775 | 2,014,379 | 2,213,107 |
| 40, | 1,538,843 | 1,452,823 | 1,220,839 | 1,045,106 | 1,047,852 | 1,149,074 |
| 50, | 835,014 | 787,180 | 633,650 | 520,879 | 503,908 | 564,413 |
| 60, | 397,422 | 358,331 | 279,020 | 215,944 | 196,433 | 246,266 |
| 70, | 182,405 | 128,065 | 93,378 | 68,669 | 60,056 | 79,220 |
| 80, | 39,484 | 35,219 | 24,598 | 20,433 | 13,450 | 23,032 |
| 90, | 7,936 | 7,625 | 5,924 | 4,353 | 2,815 | 4,555 |
| 100, | 1,266 | 1,336 | 1,393 | 1,116 | 625 | 253 |

TABLE C.—FREE WHITE MALES—Continued.

| Years. | Tennessee. | Kentucky. | Ohio. | Indiana. | Illinois. | Missouri. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Below 5, | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... |
| Above 5, | 7,874,144 | 7,972,959 | 7,996,036 | 7,706,410 | 7,612,520 | 7,823,720 |
| 10, | 5,999,859 | 6,396,665 | 6,393,220 | 6,049,951 | 5,968,896 | 5,946,809 |
| 15, | 4,938,226 | 5,111,755 | 5,083,024 | 4,749,547 | 4,701,959 | 4,673,160 |
| 20, | 3,765,532 | 3,933,350 | 3,810,108 | 3,640,951 | 3,599,377 | 3,594,311 |
| 30, | 2,116,649 | 2,259,771 | 2,215,107 | 2,007,935 | 1,892,756 | 1,947,932 |
| 40, | 1,212,969 | 1,323,630 | 1,236,731 | 1,047,696 | 955,212 | 989,136 |
| 50, | 627,379 | 705,904 | 622,668 | 495,653 | 441,548 | 480,051 |
| 60, | 271,527 | 327,808 | 268,266 | 201,588 | 161,211 | 199,288 |
| 70, | 97,280 | 115,255 | 83,503 | 62,445 | 49,994 | 55,815 |
| 80, | 26,094 | 27,374 | 18,524 | 12,966 | 12,602 | 13,298 |
| 90, | 5,295 | 4,429 | 2,116 | 1,773 | 2,019 | 2,060 |
| 100, | 1,073 | 558 | 133 | 241 | 136 | 374 |

TABLE C.—FREE WHITE FEMALES—Continued.

| Years. | Michigan. | Arkansas. | Florida. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Below 5,..... | ..... | ..... | ..... |
| Above 5,..... | 7,919,508 | 7,580,638 | 7,782,550 |
| 10,..... | 6,354,575 | 5,926,763 | 6,247,394 |
| 15,..... | 5,074,405 | 4,625,107 | 5,043,563 |
| 20,..... | 3,982,533 | 3,555,605 | 3,911,009 |
| 30,..... | 2,053,909 | 1,801,265 | 2,135,231 |
| 40,..... | 991,646 | 853,511 | 1,094,109 |
| 50,..... | 440,390 | 393,199 | 500,675 |
| 60,..... | 144,267 | 130,775 | 197,570 |
| 70,..... | 37,965 | 36,617 | 73,628 |
| 80,..... | 11,388 | 10,462 | 18,407 |
| 90,..... | 3,796 | 2,615 | 6,135 |
| 100,..... | 0 | 0 | 0* |

The most striking fact, in the above table, is, that it embraces a wider difference in the longevity of the different states, than is found in table B, which we arranged from Quetelet. The widest difference in that table, is between Belgium, in which there are 350 above 70 years, and the United States, in which there are only 145.2 above 70.

Difference=104.8.

In table C, in the state of Connecticut, among the females, we have 351.332† above 70 years; in Georgia, among the same sex, there are only 93.378 above 70.

Difference=257.954! More than twice the widest range embraced in the table of Quetelet!

How M. Adolphe Quetelet would stare to find his own Belgians outlived by the pumpkin-phagi of Connecticut! Especially, since he has carefully accounted for the short-livedness of the population of the United States "as owing to the rapid increase of the population, * * the greater number of individuals proceeding from this great development of fecundity, being still little advanced in the career of life." (On Man, p. 57.) Little advanced, forsooth! Fine young maids of seventy! Their budding beauties freshly germinating, and contributing to a remarkably "great development of fecundity!"

Another remarkable fact developed in table C, is, that as a general rule, the age of 5 years—in other words, the proportion above to the proportion under 5 years—generally determines the longevity of each state and territory. The exceptions are those anomalies produced by emigration. In order that this fact may be more readily determined, the *proportion under 5 years* is not stated. It is easily obtained by deducting the number set against "above 5 years," from 10,000,000.

Excepting Indiana, Illinois, Missouri, Michigan, Arkansas, and Florida, it will be seen that the relative distribution of the sexes gives the relative preponderance for the females, (the period of fecundity excepted, always,) which Quetelet has demonstrated to be the normal or natural distribution, of the relative longevity of the sexes. The states excepted, are anomalous from obvious causes; they are newly settled, pioneer states.

Quetelet, for other reasons, has noted the importance of the 5th year of human existence. He says, "the age of 5 years is most remarkable, because the mortality which had been so very great until then, suddenly ar-

* The absence of centenarians in Florida, &c., &c., is a proof of the accidental, irregular distribution of population in these states; which would, naturally, produce an excess of centenarians.

† On the basis of 10,000, instead of 10,000,000: which is effected by simply changing the position of the decimal point.

rests itself, and becomes extremely small until the age of puberty. It is at the age of 5 years, that probability of living, or *probable life*, (*la vie probable*,) attains its maximum; that is to say, that man is able to count on the longest life."—(Recherches sur la Reproduction, &c., p. 51.)

If this remark of the distinguished Belgian be true, "that 5 is the age when the longest probable life can be predicted," it follows, that the greater the number of persons who reach this age, the greater is the probable life—longevity—of the population which produces this "greater number of persons."

The following is a probable reason for this fact. Small-pox,* scarlatina, and measles, are fatal principally to children *under* 5 *years of age*. The superior strength of constitution, which enables a large proportion of children to resist, or survive these "pests," will also carry them to an advanced age. Or, on the other hand—with deference be it written by a disciple of Hippocrates—the more general vaccination which protects a larger number of children from one of the pests, argues the presence of such medical assistance as will materially prolong the life of the people of whom those children are a part.

But, to return to table B; let us select the states of *New Hampshire* and *Georgia*, in order that we may estimate the influence of the climate on the longevity of each state.

In regard to the *climate* of New Hampshire, Dr. Forry states that "with the exception of the southeastern angle of the state, the surface is hilly or mountainous, the elevations rising in height as they recede from the sea, until they finally swell into the lofty grandeur of the White Mountains. The great central knot consists of rocky pinnacles, shooting up to the altitude of from 5,000, to upwards of 6,000 feet. On these summits, the ascent to which discovers several striking changes in vegetation, as already described, * * snow lies during ten months in the year. A large part of the state is yet covered with native forests, which are still haunted, in some places, by the larger kind of wild animals. Of the population, nearly four-fifths live in the southern portion of the state, much of the northern being too rugged and sterile to be susceptible of cultivation. * * * Reference has already been made to the severity of the winters, which are long and rigorous, the prevailing winds being from the northwest. Whilst in winter, the mercury sinks to 15° or 20°, and sometimes 30° and 40° below zero.† Towards the end of October, ice begins to form, and snow generally lies till late in April. Cattle are housed from about the first of November till the middle of May."—(Climate of the United States, &c., p. 122.) In regard to the temperature of New Hampshire, we are obliged to adopt the results obtained at Fort Constitution, near Portsmouth, in which, doubtless, the annual temperature is some degrees too high for the mean of the state, although not much too high for the portion in which the great bulk of the population reside.

The climate of *Georgia* is thus described by Forry: "Georgia is divided into three well-defined belts, extending across the state from east to west. The Atlantic Plain, the northern boundary of which passes near Augusta, Milledgeville, Macon and Columbus, exhibits the usual features; whilst a zone of sand-hills forms a higher terrace, reaching to the base of

* "As much as five-sixths of the mortality (of small-pox) occurs before the age of 5 years."—(Forry, Appendix to Boylston Prize Essay on Vaccination.)

† The lowest temperature recorded at Stockholm, Sweden, is 26° C, or 16° 42 F., below zero.—(Kaemtz, p. 168.)

the mountains, and constituting the Atlantic Slope. Extending thence to the sources of the rivers, is the hilly region, which, blessed with a mild climate and productive soil, contrasts strongly with the hot, sultry, and malarial region below. Cotton and rice are the great agricultural staples. Some tobacco is cultivated in the middle and northern, and some sugar in the southern parts."—(On Climate of the United States, p. 168.)

"The great Atlantic Plain * * is composed of a series of horizontal deposits of sand, clay, and some limestone, deeply furrowed by the channels of its water-courses, and containing some basins having the character of swamps. The greater part of the plain is covered with extensive pine forests, not, however, without many patches of good land."—(Id., p. 163-4.)

Augusta Arsenal, the locality we have selected for the average mean annual temperature of Georgia, is situated about the middle of the state, near the transition of climates, and about 130 miles from the ocean.

| PLACE. | LATITUDE. | TEMPERATURE. | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Annual. | Spring. | Summer. | Autumn. | Winter. |
| New Hampshire,... | 43° 40′ | 47°21 | 45°22 | 65°72 | 49°95 | 28°39 |
| Georgia,..... | 33° 28′ | 66°01 | 65°89 | 81°06 | 65°49 | 51°43 |
| Difference,..... | 9° 36′ | 18°90 | 20°67 | 15°34 | 15°54 | 23°04 |

| Place. | Hottest month. | Coldest month. | Range. |
|---|---|---|---|
| New Hampshire,..... | 67°89 July, | 24°50 January, | 43°39 |
| Georgia,..... | 82°17 " | 48°63 " | 32°54 |
| Difference,..... | 14°28 | 24°13 | 10°85 |

The difference in the mean annual temperature is 18°90; and this difference is chiefly caused by the long duration of the winter in New Hampshire; this season (winter,) is 23° 04 colder than the winter of Georgia.

Let us now compare the longevity of these states, placing the decimal point so as to make the basis that of 10,000.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| In New Hampshire, above 70 years, Males,..... | 283.370 | |
| " " " " Females,..... | 318.181 | |
| | 2)601.551 | |
| Mean,..... | | 300.775 |
| In Georgia, above 70 years, Males,..... | 96.801 | |
| " " " " " Females,..... | 93.378 | |
| | 2)190.179 | |
| Mean,..... | | 95.089,5 |
| Difference between longevity of New Hampshire and Georgia,..... | | 204.685,5 |

The population of New Hampshire enjoy a longevity twice and a half greater than the population of Georgia.

It is interesting to compare the longevity and climate of New Hampshire with those of Sweden. The annual temperature of Sweden is about 40°; that is, 7° 21 minutes *colder* than the temperature of New Hampshire; the prevalent institutions of Sweden are nearly on a par, in their relation to vital statistics, with the institutions of New Hampshire. They agree in oppressing the Roman Catholics!! Sweden has cold winds and rain from the east; New Hampshire enjoys the northwest wind in all its glory. The longevity of Sweden is 282; the longevity of New Hampshire, 300. Difference in favor of New Hampshire, 18 persons in 10,000. That is, the milder climate has the greater longevity.*

Let us compare *Connecticut* with *New Hampshire*. "Connecticut is

* A similar view is obtained by comparing Belgium with New Hampshire.

mostly hilly or undulating, but never mountainous; * * on all the rivers, however, particularly the Connecticut and Housatonic, there are rich alluvial tracts."—(Forry.)

| Place. | Latitude. | Annual. | Spring. | Summer. | Autumn. | Winter. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| New Hampshire,..... | 43° 04′ | 47°21 | 45°22 | 65°72 | 49°95 | 28°39 |
| Conn., (Fort Trumbull,)... | 41° 22′ | 55°00 | 51°00 | 71°89 | 57°61 | 39°33 |
| Difference,..... | 1° 42′ | 7°79 | 5°78 | 6°17 | 7°66 | 10°94 |

As in the other places compared, the principal difference in temperature occurs in the winter. The temperature of the coldest month (January,) in New Hampshire, is 24°50; of the ooldest month in Connecticut, (January,) 34°50; difference, 10°. Hottest month in New Hampshire, (July,) 67°89; hottest month in Connecticut, (July,) 73°87; difference, 5°96.

| | |
|---|---|
| There are, above 70, in Connecticut; mean of males and females,..... | 319.277 |
| " " " " New Hampshire, " " " " ..... | 300.775 |
| Difference between longevity of New Hampshire and Connecticut,..... | 18.502 |

The milder climate of Connecticut has a longevity as much greater than that of the colder climate of New Hampshire, as the climate of New Hampshire has a longevity greater than that of Sweden!

The table (C) shows the proportion of females in Connecticut above 70 years, to be 351 in 10,000, or 351,332 in 10,000,000. If we take into account the roving habits of the males of Connecticut, and the ease with which they pitch their tents for life, in any spot which yields a profitable bargain, it is probable that we may reckon the mean longevity of males and females higher than 319 in 10,000.

The apparently numerous proportion of both sexes in this state, (Connecticut,) between 5 and 15 years, as shown in table C, is accounted for by the great number of children from other states, who attend school in this; and hence, another reason for the propriety of estimating the longevity of this state higher than the tabular numbers.

If we compare Connecticut with Georgia, the difference of annual temperature is 11°1; of longevity, 224 in 10,000, or 224,188 in 10,000,000.

A similar difference in longevity, accompanying difference in climate, occurs, if we compare all the New England, with all the Southern States (the old states.)

| States. | Mean annual temperature.* | Mean of males and females above 70 years. |
|---|---|---|
| Maine,..... | ..... | 183.291 |
| New Hampshire,..... | ..... | 300.775 |
| Vermont,..... | ..... | 272.735 |
| Massachusetts,..... | 49°71 | 290.865 |
| Connecticut,..... | ..... | 319.277 |
| Rhode Island,..... | ..... | 279.001 |
| Mean of New England,..... | | 274.624 |

| States. | Mean annual temperature. | Mean above 70 years. |
|---|---|---|
| Virginia,..... | ..... | 146.258,5 |
| North Carolina,..... | ..... | 161.392 |
| South Carolina,..... | 66°07 | 124.874,5 |
| Georgia,..... | ..... | 95.089,5 |
| Florida,†..... | ..... | 52.520,5 |
| Mean of Southern States,..... | | 116.027 |

* The temperature given, is the mean of as many localities (in the different states,) as could be procured from authentic records.

† Although recently annexed to the United States, Florida contains some of the most ancient of European settlements in the New World.

The difference in temperature between the New England and Southern states, is 17°64; there are other climatic differences, too well known to be here specified. In speaking of the climate of Florida, Forry says, "the want of hygrometrical observations to indicate the actual or comparative humidity of the atmosphere, is to be regretted. That the air is much more humid than in our more northern regions, is sufficiently cognizable to the senses. The dews, even in the winter, are generally very heavy. To guard against the oxidation of metals, as, for example, surgical instruments, is a matter of extreme difficulty. During summer, books become covered with mould, and keys rust in one's pocket."—(On Climate, &c., p. 62.) "As the rains, however, generally fall at a particular season, the atmosphere in winter is comparatively dry and serene. * * At Fort King, the annual number of fair days is 309."—(Id.)

"In countries and seasons in which solar action is most intense, electrical phenomena are most frequent and energetic; and whilst atmospheric moisture favors the passage of electricity from the earth to the clouds, the opposite condition causes its accumulation in objects on its surface. Consequently, in the excessive climates of the northern division, thunder and lightning are of rare occurrence, and terrestrial objects are charged with an unusual portion of electricity; whereas, in the warm and moist atmosphere of the alluvial zone which skirts our southern coast, opposite phenomena are witnessed."—(Id., p. 63.)

So much for the comparative *climates:*

| | |
|---|---|
| The longevity of the New England States,..... | 274.624 |
| " " " Southern " ..... | 116.027 |
| Difference,..... | 159.597 |

The climate of New England is more favorable to longevity than the climate of the old Southern states, in the vast disproportion of 274 to 116, or $5\frac{1}{2}$ to 2!

Results so constant, have some claim to be considered as a fixed law. And we think that sufficient evidence has been adduced, to make it extremely probable that a climate whose mean annual temperature ranges between 45° and 55°, is more favorable to longevity than a climate 8° or 10° higher or lower in temperature.*

---

* The hygrometry of the atmosphere between 45° and 55°, becomes an interesting inquiry. The following is copied from Kaemtz; the degrees are centigrade, and may be reduced to Fahr., by multiplying by 1.8 and adding 32°.

Tension of vapor of water in millimetres of mercury.

| Degrees. | Millimetres. |
|---|---|
| 6 | 6.90 |
| 7 | 7.38 |
| 8 | 7.89 |
| 9 | 8.41 |
| 12 | 10.24 |
| 14 | 11.62 |
| 15 | 12.38 |
| 19*a* | 15.86 |
| 22*b* | 29.94 |

*a* About 66° Fahr.

Table of the weights of vapor of water which a cubic metre of air may contain at different temperatures.

| Degrees. | Grammes. |
|---|---|
| 6 | 8.25 |
| 7 | 8.79 |
| 8 | 9.30 |
| 9 | 9.86 |
| 12 | 11.83 |
| 14 | 13.33 |
| 15 | 14.17 |
| 19 | 17.75 |
| 22 | 20.91 |

*b* 71°60 Fahr.

From these tables, it is evident that one constant difference—difference of the dew point—accompanies a difference of temperature. Air, at the temperature of 6° C., or 42°8 Fahr., can only contain one-half the quantity of vapor of water, which air at 66°

The great states, New York and Pennsylvania, are within the limits of temperature which have thus far been found accompanied with greatest longevity.

| | |
|---|---|
| There are above 70 years, in New York,..... | 139.736 |
| " " " " " Pennsylvania,..... | 136.580 |

The mean in these states is only 19 in 10,000 above the average longevity of the Southern states! This apparent anomaly is accounted for by two reasons: 1st. By reference to table B, it will be seen that the increase of these states has been three times as rapid as the increase of the Southern states, during the last fifty years; this relatively rapid increase has produced a great diminution of the *proportion* of the longæved. 2d. New York and Pennsylvania have, in their metropolitan and other populous cities, a disturbing cause, which materially diminishes the longevity of the states themselves. This fact is proven by a comparison of the longevity of the city of New York, with the longevity of one of the interior counties of the same state, Courtlandt county, which has been taken at random. Both are from the census of 1840.

| | |
|---|---|
| Above 70, in Courtlandt county,..... | 193.818 |
| " " City of New York,..... | 82.669 |
| Difference,..... | 111.149 |

A difference of 111 in 10,000; nearly as great as the difference between the New England and the Southern states!

These states, therefore, do not form exceptions to the general law above stated. Not only do facts gathered from the states, fairly compared, confirm this law, but an investigation of the condition of the population in different sections of the same state, also adds strength to the law. This may be seen by a comparison of two counties with different climates, in the state of South Carolina, according to the census of 1840.

| | |
|---|---|
| Above 70 years, in Pickens county, S. C.,..... | 202.696 |
| " " " Beaufort " " ..... | 69.025 |
| Difference,..... | 133.671 |

Pickens and Beaufort contain nearly the same number of inhabitants; the former is 2° north of the latter. Pickens and Beaufort differ in climate only. Pickens county is situated on the hilly and undulating land which gently slopes from the foot of the Blue Ridge chain; whilst Beaufort lies in the low, alluvial region, which the Savannah and Combaha rivers divide into large islets. The mean annual temperature at Beaufort cannot be less than that of Charleston harbor, 65°78, whilst Pickens county enjoys a temperature at least 10° lower—within the range of 45° and 55°. These two counties, in the same state, and under identical institutions, present a difference in longevity greater than that between New England and the Southern states!

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Fahr., can hold in solution. It follows that the dew point must always be lower, and *air must always contain less of the vapor of water* at the temperature of 42° Fahr., than air at the temperature of 66° Fahr. Hence, if the atmosphere at temperature of 42°, were actually saturated, it could contain too little of the vapor of water to impede the oxygenation of air in the lungs; whilst air at 66° or 72°, might contain enough of moisture for that effect. Whether the very small quantity of vapor of water, which air at a temperature below 42° can contain, allows the too rapid oxygenation of the blood, is an interesting and important question.

In *muggy*, moist weather, with a low temperature, the symptoms are those of diminished or feeble electricity, rather than of impeded breathing (oxydizing of the blood.)

The colored population have not been thrown into a tabular form, because they are enumerated, in the census, under 10 and under 24 years, &c. &c.; which does not give the proportions under 5, and above 70, the ages most important for determining the proportion of longevity. Yet there is evidence sufficient, in this imperfect enumeration, to make it highly probable that the longevity of the whole colored population is rather less than the longevity of the whole white population.

The whole colored population, free and enslaved, should be estimated together, irrespective of the division made in the census—because the great majority of those free in 1830 or 1840, were slaves twenty years before the former date; and hence, no class of colored persons have enjoyed freedom, in the United States, for a sufficient length of time (at least 100 years,) to yield statistical data based upon the fact of their freedom. Hence, the admitted superior longevity of the free colored class, is materially lessened, when we take into account the fact "that many of these aged persons had been liberated at, or past middle age, for services rendered by them to their masters."—(Tucker.) If we also recollect, what Quetelet has demonstrated, that the fecundity of marriages at middle age, is greatly less than the fecundity of youthful parents, these two facts will go far to account for the apparently large proportion of longevity which is enjoyed by the free colored class, a longevity due, not to the proportion of the free colored class, but to them in common with the slaves, and a still wider basis,* which has been hinted at in an early portion of this essay. The colored class are also, to some extent, a mixed race, and hence, without going to the supposition of Tucker,† their longevity is actually, in part, based upon the proportion of the white population.

According to Tucker, (p. 54,) the number of

| | Per cent. | Per cent. |
|---|---|---|
| Whites under 10, was,..... | in 1830, 32.53 | in 1840, 31.63 |
| Free colored, under 10,..... | " " 30.11 | " " 28.88 |
| Slaves, under 10, was,..... | " " 34.09 | " " 33.93 |

By an inspection of the above, it would seem that a mean of the per centage under 10, of the free colored and slaves, would be about the same per centage of the whole, under 10, as of the whites under the same age. And this would be true if the slaves and free colored were equally divided, and had been separated into such classes during one hundred years before 1830. But, as the free colored are only one-sixth portion of the entire colored population, and as they have been separated from the slaves but recently, and are, for the reason stated on last page, less productive of increase, it would be but fair to estimate the entire proportion of colored, free, and slaves, under 10, at about 34 per cent.

By an examination of table C, (census of the United States,) it will be seen, that the larger the proportion of the population under 10 years, the less the proportion over 70 years. In Vermont, for example, among the males, there are 29.31 per cent‡ under 10 years of age, and 2,05 per cent

* Progress of the United States, p. 73. "The mixed breed * * may be more tenacious of life than either the white or negro race."

† The decimation of the slave-trade. The account of the fearful mortality on board the Pons, where the *strong* survived the weak, confirms the views already given.

‡ Vermont has, above 10 years, 7,068,572 in 10 millions, or 70.68 in 100. That is, 70.68 per cent above 10, and, by subtraction, 29.32 per cent under 10. In table C, the per centage between any given ages, may in like manner be obtained by subtraction. For

above 70 years: in Georgia, among the same class and sex, there are 36.98 per cent under 10 years, and only .96, not 1 per cent, above 70.

It is a prevalent opinion that the colored population endure the heat of the climate in the Southern states better than the whites. Hence, it becomes interesting to determine whether the slaves in the slave states have a longevity equal to that of the whites in the same states. This question can only be answered by an approximation, which will not vary much from the truth.

By table C, it appears that the whites, above 10 years, are, in—

| | Males. | Females. |
|---|---|---|
| Virginia,..... | 66.18754 | 67.55279 |
| North Carolina,..... | 64.94152 | 67.06070 |
| South Carolina,..... | 65.27992 | 66.45409 |
| Georgia,..... | 63.02996 | 62.69607 |
| | 259.43894 | 263.76365 |
| | | 259.43894 |
| | | 8)523.20259 |
| Males and females above 10 years,..... | | 65.40032+ |

Which is about 65.40 per cent above 10 years of age, and therefore, 34.60 per cent under 10 years; and this is in the Southern states, which have been longest settled, and which are, according to table C, most favorable to the longevity of the whites. We have, therefore, in these states, the number of—

| | Per cent. |
|---|---|
| Whites under 10 years of age,..... | 34.60 |
| Slaves " " " ..... | 34.09 |
| Difference,..... | .51 |

Hence, the slaves, having one-half of one per cent fewer than the whites under 10 years of age, it is extremely probable that they have a larger proportion over 70 years of age, than the whites have in the above-named states; and it is almost certain that they have a greater proportion of longevity than the whites in all the Southern states; Maryland, although a slave state, has a comparatively mild climate, and must therefore be omitted. It is properly classed by Tucker among the Middle states.

If allowance be made for the depressing circumstances in which slavery of necessity places the slaves, thereby curtailing their longevity, it is fair to infer that, if free from this depression, the slaves would attain a greater longevity. And there are sufficient grounds for the belief that the slaves, under a mean temperature of 66°17, performing their daily labor in the open air, exposed at once to the heat of an almost tropical sun, and the malaria of an alluvial soil, pregnant with organic remains—the slaves, under all these disadvantages, would, if freed from slavery, attain a longevity not

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instance; let it be required to find the per centage of white males, between 10 and 15 years of age, in Vermont.

| | White males. |
|---|---|
| By table C, there are, above 10 years, in Vermont,..... | 7,068,572 |
| " " " " " 15 " " " ..... | 5,810,543 |
| Difference,..... | 1,258,029 |

That is, 1,258,029 in 10 millions, or 12.58 in 100; which is the same as 12.58 per cent of white males between 10 and 15 years of age in Vermont.

very much below that attained by the Europ-American population under the milder temperature of 55°, Fahr., and other favorable climatic influences.

Whether their longevity would ever equal the ratio of the New England states, is a question that would depend upon the standard of civilization which the slaves might attain when liberated. If their civilization should reach a high grade, there seems no reason to doubt that they would attain the same longevity which the people of New England enjoy.

The statement, therefore, for which we claimed the authority of a general law, viz: "that the longevity of a population is curtailed by a climate whose mean annual temperature is under 45°, Fahr., or above 55°, Fahr.;" this statement must be so far modified, that, in regard to the high temperature, the law seems to be confined to that portion of the great Indo-European race, which, during the last eight or ten centuries, has been accustomed to the climate of middle and northern Europe.

The negro race, on the contrary, having been, during the same, and perhaps a greater length of time, accustomed to the *duration* of the intense heat of inter-tropical Africa; this race, by a transposition to the milder climate of our Southern states,* has attained a longevity above that of the whites; the latter, living on the same localities, and under more favorable circumstances. Whether the longevity of the slaves at the south, be greater than the average longevity of the same race on the African coast, is a question for which we have no means of forming a correct solution.

That the human race can endure a climate with a mean annual temperature of 80°, is proven by the fact, that Maracaybo, in South America, with a mean annual temperature of 82°20, Fahr., (Kaemtz,) has been the site of an Indian town at no remote period, and is now inhabited by a population of 20,000 souls. Masfaoua, in Abyssinia, has a mean annual temperature of 84°20, the highest yet recorded. The annual range at Maracaybo is only 3°, centigrade; at Masfaoua, 8°, C. The influence of these high temperatures on longevity, is a question which there are no statistics to answer.

Even if we had an enumeration of the natives of any of these extremely hot climates, it would fail to represent the longevity of the climate; because such natives would not be sufficiently advanced in civilization to make them a subject for fair comparison with any of the nations of Europe. Perhaps, however, an enumeration of the Ashantees, or Foulahs, might be compared with a like number of Russians, and afford some clue to the influence of extremely high and extremely low temperatures on the longevity of the human race in a semi-barbarous state.

There is, however, reason to believe that the human frame obeys the general law of organic life on our globe. Where organic life languishes, as in the hyperborean regions, man dwindles in the size, the number, and the longevity of his race. Greenland, the coldest region inhabited by man, contains only 6,000 or 7,000 persons over a vast extent of territory. The mean annual temperature of the sea of Greenland is 17°44, Fahr.

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* (Kaemtz.)—Mean annual temperature of coast of Guinea,..... 79°32, F.
" " " Southern states,..... 66°07, F.

Difference,..... 13°25, F.

Hence, the slaves at the South, are under a mean annual temperature 13°25 lower than the climate from which they have been transported.

(Kaemtz.) In Iceland, the most thickly peopled districts have barely 2 inhabitants to the square mile.* Although considerably advanced in civilization, the people of Iceland "seldom live to an advanced age."† The mean annual temperature of Iceland is 0°, C., or 32°, Fahr. (Kaemtz.)

On the other hand, where organic life flourishes, there we find a vast capacity for increase in the human family, as in inter-tropical Africa, and Hindostan. In one portion of the latter country, in the Delta of the Ganges, under a mean annual temperature of 79°, Fahr., the Bengalee, a native race, numbering 25,000,000, occupy only 80,000 square miles of territory,‡ which is about 312 persons to the square mile.

But, whether the very sparse population of the frozen regions, or the densely crowded inhabitants of the Delta of the Ganges, produce the larger proportion of longevity, is a question which we cannot, at present, answer, for the want of statistical data.

It may be objected to the standard of longevity adopted in this essay, that it is founded on the ages of the *living*, and omits the ages of the *dying*. The following table is offered in reply to the objection.

TABLE OF THE POPULATION OF BELGIUM.—(Quetelet.)

| Age. | Deduced from the Table of Mortality. | Obtained directly by the census. | Age. | Deduced from the Table of Mortality. | Obtained directly from the census. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Birth, | 100,000 | 100,000 | 71 years | 4,116 | 3,041 |
| 1 year | 96,937 | 97.215 | 75 " | 2,379 | 1,820 |
| 2 years | 94,562 | 94,446 | 79 " | 1,205 | 884 |
| 3 " | 92,401 | 91,962 | 81 " | 816 | 543 |
| 5 " | 88,400 | 87,034 | 85 " | 327 | 222 |
| 6 " | 86,487 | 84,648 | 87 " | 190 | 127 |
| 8 " | 82,768 | 80,274 | 89 " | 104 | 72 |
| 10 " | 79,143 | 76,138 | 90 " | 76 | 50 |
| 16 " | 68,618 | 64,707 | 91 " | 55 | 33 |
| 20 " | 61,932 | 57,854 | 92 " | 39 | 25 |
| 30 " | 46,506 | 41,047 | 93 " | 27 | 18 |
| 40 " | 32,992 | 27,639 | 94 " | 19 | 13 |
| 50 " | 21,289 | 17,471 | 95 " | 12 | 9 |
| 53 " | 18,154 | 14,488 | 96 " | 8 | 6 |
| 56 " | 15,220 | 12,039 | 97 " | 4 | 4 |
| 59 " | 12,495 | 9,899 | 98 " | 2 | 2 |
| 62 " | 9,993 | 7,811 | 99 " | 1 | 1 |
| 65 " | 7,746 | 6,058 | 100 and upwards, | 1 | 1 |
| 69 " | 5,194 | 3,951 | | | |

From this table it appears that, after the third year, and until the 97th year, the table of population deduced from the table of mortality, gives greater results. Yet, as these results are greater in an almost *constant ratio*, it follows that the age of the living, bearing this *constant ratio* to the age of the dying, may, therefore, fairly be taken for the actual age of a given population, even independently of, and without the age of the dying. At all events, the living age of one population may be compared with the living age of another population, and the result of the comparison will be as accurate as if the age of the living and the age of the dying were obtained and compared in each population, with the living and the dying of the other. For, the ratio of the living to the dying being *constant in both cases*, the living in the one being compared with the living in the other, the dying of the one would have the very same proportion to the dying of the other, according to the well-known doctrine of proportionals.

* Calculated from M'Culloch's Gazetteer, Harper's edition, vol. 2, p. 3.
† Idem, p. 4. ‡ Id., vol 1, p. 1,185.

CONCLUSIONS.

The statements in this essay are entirely based upon statistical data, from the conviction on the part of the writer, that no other data should be admitted as evidence on the "influence of climate on longevity."

The statements of travellers and historians are omitted; because, in regard to the first, the observation of no one man can be sufficiently wide to demand an assent to his views, when those views relate to what statistics alone can prove; and in regard to the historian, his views on the question before us, are the result of inferences drawn from sources other than calculations based on statistics.

The conclusions which appear to be warranted by the matter in this essay, are the following:

1st. That the temperature of the atmosphere has a decided influence on the longevity of the whole, and of separate parts of the human family.

2d. That the great Indo-European race enjoys the largest share of longevity in a mean annual temperature of from 45° to 55°, Fahr.; their longevity being diminished by a temperature above or below that limit.

3d. That the negro, and the dark races of mankind, can endure a mean annual temperature higher than the limit of the Indo-European race, and enjoy a greater degree of longevity than that race under the aforesaid high temperature.

4th. Whilst extreme cold is a limit to the longevity of the human race, extreme heat has not yet been proven, and, in all probability, is not a limit to the longevity of races who have long lived beneath a high temperature.

5th. Excessive climates, (viz., those which have a wide annual range of the thermometer,) as New England, are not unfavorable to the longevity of the Indo-European race, when a large share of the excess is on the side of a low temperature.

## Art. II.—THE WAREHOUSING SYSTEM:

CONSIDERED IN REFERENCE TO ITS APPLICATION TO THE COMMERCIAL POLICY OF THE UNITED STATES OF NORTH AMERICA.

THE increasing commerce of the United States demands at the hands of the government corresponding facilities for carrying it on. The interests of the country are so minutely interwoven with its commerce, that the one cannot be neglected without sacrificing the other. Every branch of agriculture, of manufacture, every line of trade, of mechanical pursuit, though not perhaps immediately obvious, are, nevertheless, directly interested, as I design to show, in promoting the extension and general welfare of commerce.

So far as my observation extends, the vast advantages connected with what is usually denominated the warehousing system, and the urgent necessity which presses upon the country for its establishment, are very imperfectly understood.

Having enjoyed its benefits, and witnessed its working for nearly forty years in England, I will endeavor to bring the subject before you, and to explain and illustrate it, both in theory and practice, in so plain and familiar a way, that every merchant, farmer, and mechanic, may fully comprehend it.

I think every citizen will see that, since the abolition of credits upon duties upon foreign imports, and the substitution of immediate cash payments, the necessity of such a measure has greatly increased, and that the commerce of the country is crippled through the want of it.

The warehousing system was introduced in England in 1803. A strange idea had prevailed which operated to prevent its earlier introduction, that it had some similitude to the excise system, whereas nothing could be more opposite; that it would tend to concentrate the commerce of the country, and create a kind of monopoly in the hands of the government; but, in point of fact, the government, as such, have no kind of interest in the goods themselves, any more than a banker has in deposits lodged in his hands, subject to be drawn out at the will of the depositor. Subsequent statutes extended the privileges to various out-ports under certain modifications, and were finally consolidated and brought into one in 1833, during the short reign of William 4th, and I am not aware of any material alteration since that date, excepting the extension of the privilege to Manchester, an inland town, and perhaps to some other places not strictly ports of entry.

The system is the same throughout Great Britain, but the like privileges in respect to the number and kind of articles admitted under warehousing bond varies, as local circumstances, colonial interests, and other causes render expedient.

The various articles thus admitted on importation to be warehoused, are classed, by the English laws, under six heads. Timber, for example, may be warehoused where tobacco, India goods, &c., could not be without incurring the expense for warehouses, that the limited trade of a third or fourth-rate port would not justify. But I see no reason for such a classification in this country. The system, under the direction of the customs department, may well be extended to all the ports of entry in the United States, especially as exclusive privileges are not in accordance with the genius of our government.

The leading features of the warehousing system may be arranged under the following heads:

1st. The right of importing a cargo, or any part of a cargo, of foreign goods or produce, and warehousing the same in a government store, or a private store licensed by government to receive such goods without paying any duty, but entering the goods at the custom-house in bond. That is, to be delivered into a government bonded warehouse, specified in the entry.

2d. The right of exporting that cargo, or any part of it, to any foreign port free of duty.

3d. The right of transferring these goods in bond, just as they are in the warehouse, to A, B or C.

4th. The right of entering at the custom-house any part of that cargo, at any time, for home consumption, paying the import duty upon the quantity entered at the time of making the entry.

A small rent is charged by government to defray expenses, as we shall notice in the sequel.

Let us see the practical effects of this system, reserving an analysis of the laws that guide it, and their applicability to our own country, for a future communication.

Allow me to illustrate this branch of the subject by a reference to daily

practice, and by importing a cargo of tobacco from Virginia into London, of 500 hhds., each weighing 1,400 lbs. It cost 6 cents a pound in Virginia. The ship arrives in London docks. I find the duty is 76 cents a pound, and amounts to $532,000 on the cargo. The enormous amount of duty renders an immediate sale necessary, but the heavy state of the market, and the absence of all demand, renders that impracticable. If I must pay the duty down in cash, and wait the slow process of demand and sales for reimbursement, it would ruin me. My only alternative, therefore, is to send the cargo back to Virginia. "No, no," the government say, "you need not do that. We have a warehouse here, and warehousemen to take care of it. Send your tobacco to our store, without paying the duty, and we shall charge you 40 cents a hogshead when you put it into store, and when you sell it for home consumption or exportation, and the purchaser takes it away, he must pay 40 cents more, and that is all the rent we shall charge you for five years."* Well and good. I see now I shall suffer no inconvenience. I shall have time to wait a better market, and to take advantage of a more active demand, for the benefit of my Virginian correspondent. Nay, I can go further: he may send me another cargo, or half a dozen cargoes if he pleases, for I shall have the freight, only, and 40 cents a hogshead rent to pay, and I can manage that. Some Bremen gentleman may want half a dozen hogsheads so soon as the ice breaks up in the spring; or a Hamburg or Dantzic merchant may want a supply. Then the French contracts, an odious monopoly of the government, may create a demand. The Irish, too, will soon be in the market, and then all the colonies, far and near, must come in. Besides, there is the home market, which always requires feeding. Speculative purchasers, too, enjoying the same privileges as the importer, of holding his stock without rent for five years from the date of the first entry, may choose to make investments, and hold for advance in prices.

This reasoning applies with equal force to every article of importation, from every part of the world; and thus it will be seen that London, as the exemplifying representative of the whole kingdom, becomes, by the most simple and wise of all commercial arrangements, not only the granary of corn, but the capacious magazine of the produce and manufactures of the whole world.

The tobacco warehouse in the London docks covers four acres of ground, and is the property of the London Dock Company. The vaults below are appropriated to the warehousing of wine, and generally contain about 20,000 pipes. It is rented by the government at $75,500 per annum. The warehouse is under the charge of a custom-house officer, who is designated the Superintendent of the Tobacco Warehouse. When the cargo is entered for the warehouse, the permit to land is sent to him. The ship is hauled alongside of the warehouse quay, and the tobacco is landed directly into the warehouse. The laborers then proceed to weigh, sample, and record each hogshead. This is done in a very simple and expeditious manner. The hoops are started from one end of the hogshead, and one head taken out. It is then canted into the scales, with the headless end upon the scales. The hogshead is then lifted off, and the tobacco stands like a sugar-loaf divested of its paper wrapping. It is weighed, inspected, and sampled as it stands. If any part is found damaged, by salt

* This plan owes its origin to the late Mr. Claggett, an eminent tobacco merchant of Virginia, then residing in London.

water or otherwise, the damaged part is hewed off by an instrument resembling a butcher's cleaver, only of larger size. Three or four hands of tobacco are drawn generally from the middle and both ends of the hogshead, neatly tied together, and labelled with mark, number, and weight, upon a slip of vellum. These labels and samples are the evidence of quantity and quality, by which both the sale and purchase are regulated. They are then put away in chests, in an apartment provided for that purpose in the warehouse, or are sent, together with a small book containing an account of the cargo, to the merchant's or broker's counting-house, agreeably to the orders of the importer.

The merchant has no occasion to go to the docks at all. He may sit in his counting-house, give his orders, and transact the whole business. The system is so complete in practice that it would be a difficult thing for him to deviate from it in the smallest particular.

The following charges, independently of rent, are made on tobacco in the London docks :—

| | |
|---|---|
| Landing, coopering, weighing, sampling, and making merchantable at landing scale, per 100 lbs. net, | 12 cents. |
| On delivery for exportation, including coopering, | 5 " |
| Ditto, if resampled, | 6 " |
| Unhousing and loading, per hogshead, | 24 " |
| Resampling, do. | 48 " |

Thus you will see that nothing is left to the discretion of the custom-house officer, or anybody else. Every charge is fixed and permanent, and the merchant knows what he will have to pay. Warrants and transfers are granted on written application at the docks, in favor of such person as the importer may designate, free of any charge for the first transfer. Subsequent transfers are subject to a small charge, according to the number of packages transferred, from 2 cents to 24. One to two packages, 2 cents; three to four packages, 4 cents; and so on up to forty-six packages, which pay, as well as all above that number, 24 cents for each transfer after the first.

Ships can load an assorted cargo, or with a single article, at any time, and for any country, without resorting to the place of actual growth or manufacture. The exporting merchant can be supplied with goods from China, India, or the continent of Europe; with clocks from Connecticut, cotton goods from Massachusetts, tobacco from Virginia, cotton from Georgia, pork, beef and corn from the west, and all the various productions of the soil, of woods and forests, of the seas, and of the mechanical arts, all at the same time and place. The system does not interfere in the least degree with the revenues of the government. The home demand remains the same, and the supply is always ready to meet it. A few years ago, when corn—I use the term in the European sense, as denoting all descriptions of grain—was scarce and high in the United States, many cargoes were shipped direct from the London docks, as well as from the out-ports, from the bonded warehouses to the United States. The price was about the same, including freight and charges from the continent, as if shipped direct from a continental port. Thus you see Great Britain, at second hand, supplied the American market. This she could not have done if her granaries were not amply supplied with foreign importations. She held, in a great measure, the corn trade of Europe in her hands, and reaped all the benefits of import and export.

Let us direct our attention to the working of this system at home. Suppose I import $100,000 worth of manufactured goods, the average duty upon which is 25 per cent; insurance, freight, carriage, and incidental charges, 5 per cent; exchange, 9 per cent. These goods cost me, supposing I pay the duty, $139,000 in New York. In disposing of them, I ought to have 10 per cent on their cost, which would make 49 per cent upon the original cost, to be paid by the consumer. But if I am allowed to warehouse the goods without paying the duty, I have but 14 per cent to pay upon prime cost. A merchant of Ohio wishes to purchase 10 packages of these goods of the value of $10,000, and I sell them to him in bond at 10 per cent profit. But, instead of charging him $14,900, which includes cost price, charges and duty, I sell them at only prime cost and charges, exclusive of duty, and, in consequence, for $12,400. He saves, therefore, by the operation of the bonding system, 10 per cent upon $2,500, the amount of duty. If the retailer regulates his sale price by the cost of his goods, the consumer in Ohio has the whole benefit of the reduced price. The government receives the same amount of duties as if paid at the time of its importation, and no loss or inconvenience is sustained by any one. This result may be extended to the consumption of the country. By the returns of the last census, it appears that 83 per cent of the whole population of the United States is engaged in agricultural pursuits. If $20,000,000 be about the sum necessary to be raised by duties upon imports, then $16,600,000 of that sum is paid by the agriculturists, and the saving to the agricultural interest, by the application of the bonding system, upon the ground that all the goods brought into consumption were sold by the importer in bond, which I do not suppose would be the case, would be $1,660,000 annually. Just in proportion, however, to the extent of sales in bond for home consumption, would be the benefit accruing to the landed interest of the country.

But, in a national point of view, there are far higher advantages to be noticed. The ports of entry become so many vast magazines for all descriptions of foreign produce and manufactures that at any time seek a market in the western hemisphere.

The merchants of South America, and all the trading community, and especially in the western world, find in our seaports every article they can want, and instead of confining our exports chiefly to our own produce, we mingle with them supplies from all nations. We invite and accommodate their trade because we can supply their wants. A reciprocal commerce will spring up beyond what can easily be conceived by those who have not turned their attention to the subject. A healthful state of the market is wonderfully sustained by regular supply and demand. There is no superabundance of goods found upon the market to depress prices, and ruin the merchants; but supplies are drawn from the public warehouse just sufficient to meet the current demand of the population, and no more. There is no scarcity and no excessive supply in the market. Those articles, essential as the means of national defence, as saltpetre, brimstone, and the like, need not be accumulated at the national expense. They will be found in the public stores, deposited on private account, ready for any emergency. The objection which I heard made in Washington, by a member of Congress, that the system proposed would, in its practice, inundate the country with foreign manufactures, is entirely fallacious. On the contrary, like the governor of a steam-engine, it would regulate and

equalise the motion of the whole machinery. No merchant would be so unwise as to pay duty upon his imports before they are wanted, when there is no occasion for it. No matter how great and diversified the quantity of goods accumulated in warehouse may be, the greater the better. The home market takes off just what the consumption of the country requires, and no more. In addition to that, the whole world is our customer. Monopoly is superseded, scarcity prevented, and our whole system of trade and commerce placed upon a footing calculated to promote the stability of trade and the welfare of the country. The diversified interests of the country are systematically poised, and the harmony, union, and mutual good feeling of our population, somewhat scandalized by sectional views, are gathered into the fold of one great family compact, and move on without that jarring, and discord, and restiveness, which sometimes disturb the elements of society.

If there be any country where such a system, duly organized, and faithfully carried into practice, will prove a blessing, it is our own. The deficiency of capital, compared with the enterprise and manifest genius of the people, scarcely affords a fair scope for commercial competition with the rest of the world, and it is the interest of the country, and I think ought to be the policy of the government, to encourage all legitimate means to remedy so great an impediment. Nor are we left in darkness on this important point. England, by forty years' experience, has demonstrated its utility; and one can hardly presume, independently of the dictates of common sense, that a system injurious in itself, and disastrous to the national interests, would have been continued and extended by a nation singularly sagacious in her commercial policy. The advantages of the warehousing system, on the one hand, are so manifest, and the disadvantages arising from the want of it so palpable on the other, that it seems impossible that any one should lift the standard of opposition against its adoption. One must know the fact to believe it.

## Art. III.—THE COMMERCE OF PHILADELPHIA.

The city of Philadelphia, the most elegant in its architectural decorations, and the second in size of any in the Union, possesses extraordinary advantages for inland trade, and valuable facilities for foreign commerce. Stretching an extensive line of shipping, and regular streets, along the western bank of the Delaware, the largest vessels of its harbor have an uninterrupted navigation to the ocean. Its central position between the states of the north, the south, and the west, to which points it has run numerous tracks of railroads or canals, afford convenient channels for the domestic import and export trade from and to those regions. The interior spreads out a broad and fertile agricultural territory, abounding in all those products of the soil which are required for consumption and transportation abroad. The hills and valleys of the surrounding country contain inexhaustible beds of coal and mines of iron, and the industry of the people, which is employed in the fields, the manufactories, the workshops and the mines, annually furnishes a large amount of products from those sources, which affords cargoes to its ships, and freights to the numerous railroads and canals which diverge from the city. We design, in the present paper, to exhibit the prominent features of the commerce of this metropolis, in

relation to the resources of trade within its own bounds, as well as those of the adjacent region, from which it derives its prosperity.

The regular plan in which Philadelphia is laid out, is not the consequence of accident, but design. Its founder, William Penn, had early determined that a large city should here be established, and in July, 1681, there was published, before he left England, "Concessions to adventurers and purchasers in the province," in which he agreed that, as soon as the original colonists should arrive, "a certain quantity of land, or ground-plot, shall be laid out for a large town or city, in the most convenient place upon the river for health and navigation, and every purchaser and adventurer shall, by lot, have so much land therein as will answer to the proportion he hath bought, or taken up upon rent." A relative of the proprietor, Col. William Markham, was, in May of the same year, despatched with a number of colonists, to annnounce to the natives and Swedes the grant of the province to the proprietor; and, in the autumn, three commissioners were despatched to this place, to select the site, and lay out the city. In conformity with a plan at that time projected, it was laid out, Penn having reached the infant city in 1682, and we now behold in its regular and spacious streets, its uniform blocks, and its ample squares, adorned with refreshing shades, the evidence of the wise forecast and solid judgment of its original benefactor.

Nor are the advantages derived from the judicious policy of Penn inferior to those which are the consequence of its natural resources. It is situated near the junction of two rivers, which furnish channels of trade and commerce from the metropolis of Pennsylvania to and from the various parts of its rich territory, and the adjoining regions. The western front is washed by the Schuylkill, which rises in a mineral region, and flowing through a fertile district, bears those products to that section of the city; while the east is watered by the Delaware, which flows through a section rich in agriculture, manufactures, and the mechanic arts, floating the steamboats and shipping at its eastern wharves, and bearing them to the sea. Those articles which are required for necessary subsistence are here found in the greatest variety and abundance. The products of the granary and the pasture, the orchard and the farm, are here produced in extraordinary perfection, and the rivers which border its eastern and western side, with their canals or railroads, traversing the banks, and flowing from mountains containing inexhaustible quantities of anthracite coal, afford, at comparatively a small expense, this necessary fuel. The domestic and foreign trade, furnished by the dense and increasing population of the interior, the exportation of its domestic products abroad, and the construction of numerous private mansions and public edifices, tend to stimulate the enterprises of industry, and to supply wealth and elegance to the prosperity of the city.

One of the most prominent features of its commercial enterprise consists in its manufactures; and it must be admitted that in the numerous products of manufacturing industry, Philadelphia is exceeded by no city of the country, so far as their variety and excellence are concerned. Its artisans are distinguished for their skill, and in the implements furnished; and especially in the carriages and other vehicles of conveyance produced by the useful arts, it has no rival. The various manufactures of iron, the material of iron and coal here being so abundant, have attained, by the perseverance and ingenuity of its artisans and machinists, an excellence which can

scarcely be surpassed, and their improvement has been exceedingly rapid. The number of iron-foundries and machine-shops in the northwestern part of the city, can hardly fail to arrest observation, and their products have been multiplied, and they have increased in proportion to the demand furnished by the extension of railroads, and the advance of improvement. The manufacturing enterprise of its population, in fact, supplies almost everything of this species of product which is required by the wants of men. Woollen and cotton fabrics, mixed goods, silk, hats, caps, straw bonnets, leather, saddlery and harness, boots and shoes, hardware and cutlery, tobacco, soap and candles, glass, drugs and medicines, earthenware, and manufactures from the precious metals, paper, books, manufactures from marble and stone, confectionary, distilled and fermented liquors, constitute but a portion of the enterprise here directed to manufacturing and mechanical industry.

There are within its bounds twenty-nine woollen factories, which produce annually fabrics to the value of nearly a million of dollars; forty-five cotton factories, which produce goods annually to the value of between three and four millions, and mixed goods to the annual amount of between eight and nine hundred thousand are produced. There are also twelve sugar refineries and confectionaries, yielding an annual amount of more than a million of dollars; twelve millions of gallons of distilled and fermented liquors are also produced, and the yearly value of carriages and wagons made, has been estimated at three hundred thousand dollars. From the abundance of marble and stone in this quarter, there are also extensive stone-cutting establishments, both for architectural purposes as well as for those which are merely ornamental; bricks are made in large quantity, for the manufacture of which there are extensive brick-yards within the borders, and in the neighborhood of the city; and the number of houses annually erected, has been estimated at one thousand, their annual cost exceeding three millions of dollars. There are, moreover, between two and three hundred thousand dollars in value produced in the manufactures of hardware and cutlery, between two and three millions of dollars' worth of the manufactures of the precious metals, and between eight and nine hundred thousand of other metals. Ship-building is also carried on to some extent, and also the manufacture of cordage, which is made in the numerous rope-walks within or near the limits of the city.

But it is in the amount and excellence of their steam-engines, and various other forms of machinery wrought from iron, that Philadelphia is peculiarly distinguished. Extensive establishments for the manufacture of these products, so useful in the enterprises of the present day, have been erected in various parts of the city, and iron-foundries, forges, steam-engine factories, fire-engine factories, and workshops, exist, which produce yearly a large amount of value. It has been estimated, indeed, from well authenticated facts, that the annual amount of machinery here made, yields between one and two millions of dollars. We would particularly specify the enormous establishment for the manufacture of railroad engines, which is conducted by Baldwin, and that which has been erected for the same purpose, and under the direction of Norris. These gigantic works appear to cover several acres. In passing through the spacious forge rooms and furnishing shops of these extensive establishments, one can hardly fail to be impressed with the neatness, thrift, and precision which seem to pervade their management. In the various departments of those

edifices which are employed for the construction of the different parts of the machinery of the engines, from the first forging of the bar, to the last finishing of the brazen and polished wheel, there is an order and a regularity which evince the advantages of method in the prosecution of business. In the different departments, we behold the various places where each bolt and bar are constructed, until that extraordinary invention of modern times, a finished locomotive engine, is wheeled out, ready to be launched upon one of our hundreds of railroads. So excellent are the engines which have been constructed in those establishments, and so wide is the demand, that those which are manufactured in Philadelphia, are found in almost every part of our own country, as well as upon the railroads of Russia, Austria, and even in England, that great workshop of the world.

Having briefly described the general character of the manufactures of Philadelphia, we now direct our attention to the staples which are furnished to the enterprise of commerce by the resources of the soil. The territory of Pennsylvania now constitutes one of the principal agricultural states of the Union. The pastures are grazed by innumerable herds, which supply the shamble and the dairy, and the yellow corn and golden wheat wave and bend upon all its hills and valleys, while a vast amount of the various sorts of the cereal grains, and other agricultural products, are annually accumulated in the granaries. Besides, the mineral treasures of the land supply a great proportion of the export trade. The vast quantity of coal which is mined every year from its hills, that are inexhaustible in this mineral, furnish profitable cargoes to the numerous vessels which ply from the port of its metropolis; for it may be remembered that the coal of Pennsylvania almost exclusively meets the demand for this article in the Atlantic states. Iron, likewise, which is here mined in large quantity, constitutes a staple of the export trade, either in a crude state, in the form of machinery, or other manufactured products; while the various workshops, forges, foundries, and manufacturing establishments of the interior, forward a considerable portion of their products to Philadelphia, as the grand depot of distribution and shipment.

The facilities both of foreign commerce and domestic trade, are much extended by the numerous and extensive public works which have been established in various parts of the state, and which concentre in its metropolis. Numerous railroads, &c., of extraordinary elegance, diverge from Philadelphia to the extreme points of the state, furnishing not only channels for the transportation of the manufactured and commercial products of the city into the remote interior, but also for the carriage of the various products of the interior into the city. These lines of railways, canals, and roads, extend far into the bordering states, and meet the banks of the great western waters. It is thus that the products of the West, even those along the banks of the Alleghany, the Monongahela, the Ohio, and the lakes, find their markets in the metropolis of Philadelphia, while the commercial and manufactured products of this metropolis, discover points of sale along the eastern and western bases of the Alleghany mountains.

We here annex a statement of the following articles received at and despatched from the Columbia Railway route, during the year commencing December 1st, 1844, and ending November 30th, 1845.

| Articles. | Arrived East. | Dep. West. |
|---|---|---|
| Flour,.....bbls. | 188,993 | 35 |
| Wheat,.....bush. | 23,217 | 1,160 |
| Corn,..... | 154,423 | ..... |
| Oats,..... | 83,954 | ..... |
| Seed,..... | 63,958 | 531 |
| Bacon,.....lbs. | 7,044,300 | 5,900 |
| Cotton,..... | 929,100 | 647,400 |
| Drugs,..... | 10,800 | 596,350 |
| Copper,..... | 9,500 | 186,350 |
| Coffee,..... | 11,600 | 6,940,200 |
| Iron—Blooms, .... | 1,572,550 | 275,200 |
| Pig,..... | 48,400 | 710,000 |
| Bar & sheet, | 10,890,900 | 541,000 |
| Castings, .. | 620,800 | 713,700 |
| Nails,..... | 99,000 | 45,670 |
| Groceries,..... | 51,200 | 11,653,500 |
| Wool,..... | 3,317,400 | 312,300 |
| Hardware, etc.,... | 146,400 | 10,248,400 |
| Leather, ..... | 585,100 | 176,500 |
| Tobacco,..... | 3,305,700 | 354,850 |
| Lumber,.....feet | 1,195,305 | 277,700 |
| Rags,.....lbs. | 860,650 | 744,800 |
| Furs,..... | 89,700 | ..... |
| Fish,.....bbls. | ..... | 10,044 |
| Furniture,.....lbs. | 337,200 | 575,100 |
| Tallow,..... | 487,700 | ..... |
| Lead, ..... | 1,000 | 61,300 |
| Live stock,..... | 2,896,850 | 13,500 |
| Oil,.....galls. | 165 | 71,931 |
| Hops,.....lbs. | 806 | 17,500 |
| Salt,.....bush. | ..... | 47,132 |
| Plaster,.....tons | ..... | 1,351 |
| Dye-stuffs,.....lbs. | 1,700 | 279,700 |
| Whiskey,.....gals. | 465,911 | ..... |
| Agric. implements, | ..... | 300 |
| Brick, .....No. | ..... | 404,300 |
| Bark,.....lbs. | 426,500 | ..... |
| Butter,..... | 1,218,300 | ..... |
| Sundries,..... | 1,543,000 | 789,480 |
| Coal,.....tons | 2,617 | ..... |

| Articles. | Arr. East. | Dep. West. |
|---|---|---|
| Hides, .....lbs. | ..... | 532,250 |
| Cheese,..... | 216,300 | 15,740 |
| Queensware,..... | 4,300 | 4,315,500 |
| Paints,..... | ..... | 192,900 |
| Brown muslin,.... | ..... | 3,073,150 |
| Lard and lard oil, | 2,039,000 | 10,200 |
| French burr stones, | 29,700 | 166,500 |
| Deer & buff. skins, | 566,900 | ..... |
| Mahogany,..... | ..... | 25,700 |
| Kelp,..... | 365,400 | 30,600 |
| Hemp,..... | 576,200 | 301,600 |
| Feathers,..... | 584,300 | ..... |
| Other ag. products, | 531,100 | 138,600 |
| White lead,..... | 13,000 | 30,300 |
| Paper,..... | 274,300 | 176,500 |
| Straw paper,..... | 306,000 | 1,400 |
| Ale, beer, and porter,.....bbls. | ..... | 843 |
| Window glass,.lbs. | 58,800 | 20,300 |
| Dry goods,..... | 621,550 | 20,998,500 |
| Glassware,..... | 57,200 | 127,200 |
| Lime,.....bush. | 87,000 | 3,800 |
| Staves,.....No. | 49,300 | 15,700 |
| Anvils,.....lbs. | ..... | 255,100 |
| Clay, German,..... | 1,700 | 390,900 |
| Span. whiting,..... | ..... | 527,200 |
| Tin,..... | ..... | 876,300 |
| Oysters,.....bush. | ..... | 1,648 |
| Marble, .....lbs. | 665,900 | 728,500 |
| Tar,..... | ..... | 78,200 |
| Liquors,.....galls. | ..... | 26,200 |
| Pot-ash, ..... | 186,650 | ..... |
| Rope and cordage, | 83,000 | 34,600 |
| Potatoes,.....bush. | 1,248 | 2,000 |
| Alum,.....lbs. | ..... | 11,200 |
| Cider & vin.,.gals. | 1,100 | 32 |
| Shingles,.....No. | 29,300 | 3,500 |
| Ochre,.....lbs. | ..... | 2,300 |
| Oil-cake,..... | 49,600 | ..... |
| Hay,..... | 36,000 | ..... |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Tolls received,..... | | $236,629 10 |
| Loaded cars going west,..... | No. | 17,144 |
| Lading,..... | lbs. | 75,491,286 |

The great bulk of the foreign trade of Pennsylvania, it may be well known, passes through Philadelphia, and the exports and imports embrace most of the ports of Europe. Some of the principal staples which are exported from the city, are flour, which is manufactured in the state, and the bordering states of Ohio and Delaware, as well as corn-meal and wheat. The tobacco and cotton, the pork and lard, the naval stores, rice and bark from the western and southern states, also form a considerable part of the articles exported from this port. The oil, sperm candles, fish, and cotton fabrics, from the fisheries and manufacturing establishments of New England, supply a considerable portion of the cargoes of Philadelphia ships which are exported abroad. The various manufactures of iron which are produced within the bounds of the city, its refined sugar, soap and candles, its manufactured tobacco, furniture, and various other products of Philadelphia industry, go to swell the amount of foreign cargoes, and to those may be added the products of agricultural enterprise throughout the different portions of the interior. In return, the foreign imports are com-

posed of the manufactures of cotton, silk, linen, wool, iron and other metals, as well as various articles from Great Britain and continental Europe; and coffee, sugar, molasses, rum, hides, mahogany, dye-woods, manufactured tobacco, and other products, from South America and the West Indies.

But the inland trade of Philadelphia, extending to the different portions of the state of Pennsylvania, as well as to the bordering region, is much more extensive than its foreign commerce. The coal, iron, glass, lumber, flour, wheat, and other products of the western part of the state, including the extensive manufacturing city of Pittsburgh, find their way in large quantities to the city of Philadelphia, where they are either used or shipped to other parts of the Union. One of the most important, indeed, we may allege the most valuable, staple of domestic export derived from the resources of the Pennsylvania mines, is that of coal, a large portion of which is shipped from the port of Philadelphia. This valuable mineral product has now grown into extensive and increasing use; and we are enabled to judge of the profit which Pennsylvania derives from her coal mines, when we know that coal is generally employed for fuel in all our Atlantic cities and villages, and, to a great extent, for manufacturing purposes, and for the propulsion of steamboats and railroad cars, and that the great bulk of the coal thus used, as we before remarked, is obtained from the hills of Pennsylvania. The trade in coal, as a prominent enterprise of the city of Philadelphia, is manifest in the various quarters of this metropolis, each of which has extensive depots for its distribution. A railroad, extending from Pottsville, in Schuylkill county, the centre of the Schuylkill coal region, connected with the railroads which extend from the mining district to the river, furnishes a direct and rapid line of communication between the Schuylkill coal district and the city of Philadelphia. Long trains of cars, laden with coal, are continually passing upon this road, either to Philadelphia or to Richmond, an extensive coal depot, with expensive fixtures, situated above the city, upon the bank of the Delaware.

Although Philadelphia, with the adjoining districts of the Northern Liberties, Spring Garden, Kensington, Southwark, and Moyamensing, which, though at present divided by separate municipal jurisdictions, yet form one continuous settlement, contained in 1840 a population of two hundred and fifty-eight thousand, and now numbers nearly three hundred thousand inhabitants, yet, from the distance of its port from the ocean, the direct commerce is scarcely proportioned to its magnitude and importance in other respects. The shipping moored at its wharves, exports cargoes to England, France, Holland, and their colonies, as well as the other principal seaports of Europe, bringing back valuable freight in return; yet a considerable proportion of the foreign merchandise which supplies its warehouses, is brought into the port of New York, and is thence transported to its harbor, either by railroads and steamboats, or by vessels in the coastwise trade. Many foreign goods, besides manufactures of cotton and wool, shoes, bonnets, fish, oil, and other products of the industry of the more northern states, are received from New England, and a large amount of goods from England, France, China, and the principal nations of Europe, is here landed from New York. To the neighboring state of New Jersey, she sends her coal, lime, and iron, as well as various other products of her own manufactories, and her coal, flour, wheat, and corn, to New York and the New England states. Besides, she transports to the adjoining states, the products of New England, the manufactures of cotton, wool,

leather, and iron. Agricultural products are introduced from New Jersey, and Delaware sends its flour, corn-meal, wheat and corn, to the port of Philadelphia. Although the exports to Virginia are moderate in their amount, yet Philadelphia receives from that state tobacco, cotton yarn, wheat, corn, and bituminous coal. Naval stores, cotton yarn, cotton and lumber, are received from North Carolina, cotton and rice from South Carolina and Georgia, and cargoes of cotton from Alabama.

A considerable amount of cotton, sugar and molasses is received from Louisiana, the product of that state, which, in return, imports a portion of the manufactures of Pennsylvania and New England for its own consumption. Heavy goods, to a large amount, are, however, sent from the port of Philadelphia to the western states, by the way of New Orleans, and there is here received in return, by the same track, considerable quantities of cotton, tobacco, hemp, pork, lard, lead, and like products from those states. A proportion of the domestic export trade of Philadelphia is prosecuted with Ohio, Kentucky, Missouri, Tennessee, Indiana, Illinois, Mississippi, and Arkansas, and consists of the export to those states of the products of New England, and the foreign merchandise which is received by the way of New York. Large freights of flour, pork, lard, tobacco, hemp, neat cattle, horses, beef, furs and wool, are likewise received from New Orleans by the way of Pittsburgh, through the extensive public works that have been advanced to that city.

The establishment of the several lines of railroads and canals to which we have alluded, conduce to the prosperity of Philadelphia in the various departments of commercial enterprise. Running through the most important and densely populated parts of the state, and intersecting the hundreds of little villages or smaller settlements of the interior, which are the concentrating points of the agricultural interests of the surrounding country, or of those regions which produce coal or iron, they constitute the avenues for the transportation of those articles to the grand depot for consumption and shipment; provide the means and motives for the population of the country to visit the city, and constitute the channel of distribution for the imported merchandise of the metropolis to the warehouses of the various inland settlements. Philadelphia now is, and must continue to be, the grand depot of export, distribution and shipment, for southern and central Pennsylvania, and indeed for the greater part of the state. The manufacturing city of Pittsburgh, lying upon the western border, may supply, as it does at present, the region around the lakes and along the banks of the Mississippi, even to New Orleans, with its manufactures of iron, glass, and steam-engines; but that city is even now tributary to the commerce of Philadelphia. Besides, the foundations of the coal and iron interests of Pennsylvania are only just laid. New mines of iron are almost every day discovered, and but a small portion of its inexhaustible coal fields are worked. The demand for those products is rapidly increasing, and we learn that in this state railroad iron is beginning to be produced in considerable quantity, and that even a cargo of Pennsylvania iron was recently exported from the port of Philadelphia to England. It is evident that the demand will increase with the growth of the country.

The shipping of Philadelphia is composed of several classes of staunch vessels, which are employed in the foreign and domestic trade. Regular lines ply between this port and New York, Boston, Charleston, New Orleans, and the other principal intermediate cities which warrant the

prosecution of the coastwise trade. There has also been recently established an elegant and commodious series of Liverpool packets, which regularly depart for that port with adequate freights and passengers. By the report of the Secretary of the Treasury, it appears, that from the 1st of July, 1843, to the 30th of June, 1844, three hundred and seventy-six American vessels entered the district of Philadelphia, constituting a tonnage of 76,791 tons, and during the same period, there were seventy-one foreign vessels, with an aggregate of 12,738 tons. The steam vessels which are employed in connexion with the railroad lines, or in the coastwise trade, also employ a considerable amount of capital and tonnage.

The registered tonnage of the district of Philadelphia, for the year ending on the 30th of June, 1844, according to the report of the Secretary of the Treasury, was 40,295.59; the enrolled and licensed tonnage during the same period, was 74,599.24; the total tonnage of this district being 114,894.83.*

In order to exhibit the precise character and amount of the trade of Philadelphia with the west, we subjoin the following tables, showing this trade during the last three years :—

A STATEMENT OF SEVERAL PRINCIPAL ARTICLES SENT WESTWARD FROM PHILADELPHIA, FOR THE YEARS 1843, 1844, AND 1845, TO SEPTEMBER 30.

| | 1843. | 1844. | 1845. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Cotton,.....lbs. | 95,174 | 290,867 | 556,000 |
| Hemp,..... | 239,282 | 137,201 | 255,700 |
| Wool,..... | 36,635 | 126,152 | 277,900 |
| Tobacco,..... | 103,794 | 267,496 | 294,950 |
| Leather,..... | 102,064 | 17,224 | 123,470 |
| Lumber,.....feet | 89,237 | 183,235 | 314,550 |
| Drugs and dyes,.....lbs. | 362,943 | 1,002,943 | 1,181,300 |
| Bar and sheet iron,..... | 726,094 | 1,028,267 | 465,300 |
| Merchandise,..... | 29,478,877 | 39,714,608 | 38,158,160 |
| Groceries,..... | 17,388,414 | 21,386,817 | 18,719,365 |
| Rags,..... | 308,453 | 755,534 | 588,793 |

A STATEMENT OF SEVERAL PRINCIPAL ARTICLES RECEIVED AT PHILADELPHIA, FROM THE WEST, FOR THE SAME PERIOD.

| | 1843. | 1844. | 1845. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Flour,.....bbls. | 217,506 | 187,003 | 130,934 |
| Wheat,.....bush. | 45,491 | 28,211 | 15,030 |
| Bacon,.....lbs. | 7,400,165 | 5,806,991 | 7,340,000 |
| Butter and cheese,..... | 1,114,091 | 889,364 | 875,250 |
| Lard and tallow,..... | 1,431,639 | 1,613,624 | 1,814,900 |
| Live stock,..... | 3,498,649 | 2,188,840 | 2,091,150 |
| Feathers,..... | 215,503 | 310,938 | 290,200 |
| Wool,..... | 1,959,457 | 2,561,766 | 2,913,600 |
| Cotton,..... | 532,895 | 386,446 | 720,400 |
| Hemp,..... | 544,634 | 608,724 | 487,800 |
| Tobacco,..... | 3,442,636 | 3,402,886 | 2,357,800 |
| Leather,..... | 510,562 | 588,143 | 609,220 |
| Rags,..... | 477,597 | 699,465 | 642,850 |
| Bar and sheet iron,..... | 5,621,587 | 8,401,674 | 16,721,350 |

We have before alluded to the railroad lines which diverge from the city, as furnishing convenient avenues for the transportation of merchandise, not only from other states, but to and from the interior. There are

* For tabular statements of the commerce and navigation of Philadelphia, and particularly of its tonnage, from 1789, the reader is referred to an elaborate article published in the Merchants' Magazine, in April, 1844, vol. x.

established among these means of intercommunication, two lines from New York, which daily arrive with trains of cars, well freighted with passengers and merchandise. Another line runs direct to Baltimore, through Wilmington. From the west a line of railroad is also constructed, upon which are almost continually propelled trains of cars that pour into Philadelphia the products of the west as far as Pittsburgh, and even the Mississippi. Numerous canal-boats, divided into sections, when taken from the western canals, proceed upon the wheels of this road with full freights to Philadelphia, and return by railroad and canal to their places of departure. From the last line to which we have alluded, two other railroads diverge, the one to the inland village of Westchester, and the other to the central point of the coal region, from which it transports immense quantities of coal to the places of sale or shipment within or near the city.

The magnitude which has already been attained by the city, renders it a place of no small importance to the commercial enterprise of the country, whether it is considered as a producer of the products which are used in commerce, or as a consumer of those which are produced at home and abroad. Occupying two miles in breadth between the Delaware and Schuylkill rivers, that which may properly be denominated the city, stretches a front of about four miles and a half upon the Delaware. There are here fourteen banks within the city and county, with a capital of twelve millions of dollars; and likewise numerous saving institutions and loan companies. Corporations of various sorts, such as marine, fire and life insurance companies, amount to more than twenty in number, and embody a capital of six millions of dollars. Yet, it must be admitted, that from causes which are not easily to be remedied at the present time, the taxes upon property are higher than would seem to belong to a state of perfect thrift and judicious management. The following is the assessed valuation of property subject to county taxation, in the city and the several districts, for 1843, with the amount of county and state tax levied upon each.

| | Assessed valuation. | County tax. | State tax. |
|---|---|---|---|
| City, | $58,688,499 | $294,784 50 | $180,383 95 |
| N. Liberties, | 9,224,409 | 47,923 78 | 24,639 22 |
| Spring Garden, | 8,862,404 | 46,133 59 | 22,384 44 |
| Kensington, | 4,023,668 | 20,144 64 | 8,261 99 |
| Southwark, | 5,578,619 | 29,168 44 | 12,944 54 |
| Moyamensing, | 2,330,341 | 12,257 15 | 5,221 78 |
| Townships, | 10,613,941 | 64,240 37 | 31,928 56 |
| Total, | $99,321,881 | $514,652 47 | $285,764 28 |

Nor should the architectural decorations which adorn the city, be passed over; for while they evince an elegance of taste which, in our judgment, is effective in elevating the public morals, they constitute the evidence of that wealth which has itself been accumulated in the operations of trade and commerce. The abundance of pure white marble which is produced in the numerous quarries near the city, and consisting of a quality especially adapted to purposes of building, has induced its general use in the embellishment of the private mansions, streets, and public edifices. Almost every square possesses its extensive blocks, which are finished with this material; the basements of the buildings which line its principal streets, the steps and door-ways, are decorated with that stone, and in the various quarters of the city specimens of marble architecture have sprung up in the simple and massive grandeur of the Doric, the more slender and

graceful elegance of the Ionic, the leafy glories of the Corinthian, and those other classic orders in which the architectural genius of modern times has effected no improvement. Philadelphia may be, in fact, properly denominated *the marble city;* for everywhere the snowy purity of the marble expands in the broad porticoes and the smooth slabs, or springs up to the cornice, in the chiselled doorway, and the sculptured column.

Among the most prominent of those edifices which have been erected for public purposes, and which are peculiarly devoted to commercial objects, is the Merchants' Exchange. It is situated in the central portion, around which are accumulated numerous mercantile establishments, where commercial and financial operations are most generally conducted, in the triangular space between Third, Walnut, and Dock streets, and within convenient proximity to the shipping of the harbor. This imposing edifice is constructed of marble, with its front constituted of a semi-circular portico, whose roof is supported by Corinthian columns. Two colossal lions of marble lie in a crouching position upon each side of the entrance. The basement of this structure, which is very spacious, is occupied by several insurance companies, as well as by the post-office, and the second story by a reading-room and consulting chambers, and the large area which is more properly the Exchange, or place where "merchants most do congregate," whose roof is supported by lofty and massive columns, and whose ceiling is adorned with appropriate paintings. The edifice itself is in every way worthy the importance of that commercial enterprise to which it is dedicated, and is a noble monument of the laudable pride and perseverance of the commercial body. Another edifice which has been erected for the improvement of those who are connected with the trade and commerce of the city, is the Mercantile Library building, a handsome structure, whose front is decorated also with Corinthian columns, and it is devoted to the younger portion of the mercantile profession. It contains the Mercantile Library, a large number of books illustrating the interests of commerce and its kindred subjects, a reading-room, and a place for the delivery of lectures to that association.

The banking-houses of the city are many of them distinguished for their architectural elegance, and among them we would especially designate the edifice formerly occupied and owned by the Bank of the United States, which is now employed as a custom-house, the Girard bank, and the Bank of Pennsylvania. The corner-stone of the edifice of the Bank of the United States was laid in 1819, and the whole was finished in 1824, at an expense, including the ground and building, of four hundred and thirteen thousand and eighty-one dollars. It is constructed of marble from the quarries of Montgomery county, near the city. In its plan it is modelled generally upon the Parthenon at Athens, with a row of Doric columns both before and behind. The door opens upon a vestibule, the ceiling of which is richly worked, and the pavement is tesselated with American and Italian marble; the interior is profusely supported by Ionic columns, and the whole structure is a monument of severe and classic architecture of the Doric order, which is probably exceeded by that of no edifice of a similar kind upon the continent.

Another banking-house, entitled the Girard bank, from the fact that it was formerly occupied as a private banking establishment by the late Stephen Girard, although constructed for the accommodation of the old Bank of the United States, is a prominent specimen of the Corinthian order of

architecture, and it is among the most elegant ornaments of the city of Philadelphia. The edifice was commenced in the year 1795, and was completed in 1798. It stands nearly facing Dock-street, occupying an oblong square, ninety-six feet in front, by seventy-two in depth. The original cost of the structure, including the ground upon which it stands, was about two hundred and fifty thousand dollars. The front is of white marble. Six fluted Corinthian columns support the roof of the portico, and the tympanum of the pediment is ornamented by a bas-relief, containing cornucopiæ, and besides other national emblems, the American eagle. Formerly the private property of that persevering and extraordinary, though eccentric individual, Stephen Girard, it long stood one of the most imposing specimens of Philadelphia architecture, until later and more costly edifices have cast it somewhat into the shade. The bank of Pennsylvania is another edifice which, for its classical design and execution, seldom fails to arrest the observation, for it is ranked among the most beautiful specimens of architecture. The structure is situated on Second-street, near Walnut, and it exhibits an example of the pure Grecian Ionic. Its front exhibits six columns; both the columns and the entablature of the porticos being copied from a celebrated Ionic temple upon the Ilissus, near Athens. There are also numerous other banking-houses and kindred edifices, which are no less remarkable for the facilities which they afford for the prosecution of commercial operations, than for the elegance of their design and execution.

Another edifice of considerable magnitude, and although under the administration of the general government, yet devoted to objects connected with commerce, is the United States Mint. This edifice is constructed of white marble, and was finished in 1830. It exhibits a front of about one hundred and twenty-two feet upon Chesnut-street, and the same upon Centre square, decorated with six lofty Ionic columns. All the steps connected with the coining of money from the bar of gold, silver and copper, to the stamped eagle, dollar or penny, are here prosecuted, and all the processes of assaying, refining and coining, are performed, both in the preparing and stamping the metal. The apartments of the building are elegantly arranged, and the finished and effective machinery by which all those operations are conducted, is propelled entirely by steam-power. An edifice of white marble which is connected with commerce, inasmuch as it is designed as an asylum for sick seamen, a home for veterans of the navy, and for a naval school, is the Naval Asylum of the United States. This edifice was erected by the government from the proceeds of the hospital money which is regularly paid by the officers and seamen of the navy. It is situated near the eastern bank of the Schuylkill, and was completed in 1835, the entire cost being three hundred thousand dollars. It is capable of lodging about four hundred persons. Near that structure is the United States Arsenal, which is also an imposing edifice, situated upon the same line of road.

As connected with the interests of commerce, perhaps we should allude to the navy-yard of Philadelphia, belonging to the United States, and situated in the lower part of the city; for the navy, while it constitutes an interesting department of the shipping of the nation, is made abroad the most effective protector of our mercantile marine. This institution extends from Front-street to the Delaware, and is enclosed by a brick wall, constituting an area of about twelve acres. Besides other fixtures, it con-

tains a number of substantial buildings for the accommodation of officers and marines, workshops and sheds, for the storage of lumber and other supplies for the use of the navy. There are also here two large frame buildings, to shelter those ships which are in the process of construction, the one being of a sufficient size to contain vessels of the largest class, while the other is employed for the construction of frigates, and other smaller vessels.

But the establishment which has long been a source of great advantage, and an object of pride to the city, is the Fairmount water-works, by which all parts are abundantly supplied with pure water. Those works are established upon the left bank of the Schuylkill, about two miles from the centre of the city. The process by which the city is supplied with water, is by means of a dam which is thrown across the Schuylkill; the water-power thus created, turning six large wooden wheels, which themselves keep in operation six forcing pumps, that raise the water ninety-two feet, from the pool of the dam, to the four reservoirs that are situated upon the summit of the hill. Those reservoirs are one hundred feet above tide, fifty-six feet above the highest ground in the city, and they are capable of containing about twenty-two millions of gallons. From these artificial lakes, the water is distributed throughout the city by iron pipes; the total length of those pipes being one hundred and ten miles. Five dollars a year are paid by each family for the use of the water, and the average daily consumption is about four millions of gallons. The cost of erecting those works has been about fifteen hundred thousand dollars, yet they have proved profitable. The mount, which is an oval-shaped eminence, is about one hundred feet above the water in the river, is ascended by steps, and is surrounded by a gravel walk. Indeed, the whole scene is one of extreme beauty; the wheels in motion in the mill-house, which is of stone, and connected with spacious buildings that exhibit two chaste specimens of statuary, and which open upon a green plot adorned with shrubbery, present but a part of the picture. In the centre of this plot is a circular fountain, from which a small group of marble sculpture throws up a stream which falls in a shower of watery diamonds, which glitter in the sun. Upon one side, a rocky embankment, on a part of which another statue, holding a swan, throws up a stream of water, refreshes that part of the view. As you ascend the mount, a broader and more magnificent prospect expands before you. At a distance are seen upon one side, the dim woodlands which skirt the city, the broad Schuylkill, and the glancing water-fall; and on the other, the compact streets, and dense smoke overhanging the city, while the Girard college, a marble pile surrounded on all sides by a Corinthian colonade, exhibits its magnificent proportions in another direction, the whole presenting a panorama of objects which can hardly be exceeded in their imposing effect.

Near, and within immediate view from the Fairmount water-works, is the wire suspension bridge, which was opened for travel in 1842, and was constructed at an expense of fifty thousand dollars. This bridge being the first that has been erected in our own country in which the principles of that species of fabric have been carried out, demands, perhaps, a brief description. Upon each side are five distinct cables, each containing two hundred and sixty strands of wire about one-eighth of an inch in diameter. The cables are six hundred and fifty feet in length, weigh four tons, and are capable of sustaining a weight of about eight hundred tons. The

perpendicular ropes by which each floor-beam is suspended from the cables, are made of small wires, being one inch in diameter, and each of them is capable of sustaining two tons, there being seventeen to each cable. The large cables, passing over iron rollers upon the pillars, tend to equalize the tension, and are themselves fastened around numerous strong iron bars imbedded either in the solid rock, or in a large body of masonry. The cables from which the bridge is suspended, are covered with a peculiar composition, in order to protect them from rust, and the towers of the bridge are composed of blocks of granite which were quarried in New England.

In describing the commerce of Philadelphia, it may perhaps be proper to allude to the character of the merchants who have sustained it with credit for a long period of time. There are doubtless many whose names have never met the public view, exhibiting traits which would command the respect of every good citizen, and there are others who have stood in more prominent relief before the community, who have manifested the evidences of great success in their operations, and the most estimable qualities during long and eventful lives.

In concluding this brief description of the commerce of Philadelphia, we have been influenced by no spirit of exaggeration. In all its improvements, it bears the evidence of a high degree of refinement and civilization. Its elegant blocks of stores bordering the principal streets, are stocked with the choicest products of foreign and domestic industry. The railroads and turnpike-ways which lead from the city, furnish the utmost facilities for locomotion. The streets themselves are well paved and lighted, and the municipal regulations of the city are such as to commend themselves to the sound judgment of honest minds. With all the means of the most substantial prosperity provided by its admirable position and bountiful soil, it has a population who are, for the most part, true to themselves, and to the cause of justice and morality, the sacred rights of life, liberty and property, and to the sovereignty of the laws.

## Art. IV.—THE VALUE OF OREGON:

WITH REFERENCE TO THE COMMERCIAL EVILS OF A WAR BETWEEN ENGLAND AND THE UNITED STATES.*

THAT Oregon is rightfully the lawful property of the United Staes, there can be little or no dispute. Titles derived from arbitrary treaties between nations, each of whose individual title had no foundation but in the arrogance of the government claiming it, can have very little weight or force in staying the progress of a population pressing on the frontier, and bursting over the imaginary barriers fixed by the selfish laws of distant, imperial governments. The government of the United States was formed on the theory of providing a refuge to the oppressed of all nations. When the subtle tyrants of Europe and the oligarchs of England had drawn into the hands of nobles and a few favorites most of the land, and having deprived industry of the power of drawing its own food from the soil, they ground

* The reader is referred to a brief article in the Merchants' Magazine, April, 1846, for some statements derived from the venerable Gallatin's letters on the Oregon question, shewing the effects of war on our commerce.

down the wages of labor until a vast amount of work became necessary to wring from the monopolist the small quantity of the produce of the earth requisite to sustain life. Then it was that the new world offered to enterprising industry almost a limitless quantity of land, of which each individual could obtain a portion. Availing themselves of this freedom and its attendant blessings, the oppressed of Europe have, for three centuries, poured in a continuous and increasing stream to take possession of this vast heritage. The little points where they first located, as Plymouth, Jamestown, New Amsterdam, &c., threw out each a circle of pioneers pushing into the wilderness, subduing the land, and swelling the population as they went. Soon the impulse from each quarter met that from others, and the whole, with increasing vigor, has pressed on, until the Rio Grande on the south, and the Columbia on the north, form the extremes of an arc whose cord is 2,000 miles in length, and lined with settlers still pushing westward. These people are already in possession of Oregon. Their ploughs turn its sods, their axes level its timber, yet their western march in that direction is sought to be stayed by the same power that drove them from Europe, and gave an impulse to their enterprise. The same oligarchy that monopolizes the lands of England stretches its arm seven thousand miles, and draws a line in an uninhabited country, as within which cultivation must not proceed but for their profit. The effort is futile. No power on earth, nor all the powers of the earth, can check the swelling tide of American population, nor deprive that population of its indomitable enterprise and resistless energy. Every portion of this continent, from the sunny south to the frozen north, will be, in a very few years, filled with industrious and thriving Anglo-Saxons, impatient of restraints upon their industry, and seeking only to make that industry available by rapidity of intercourse and cheapness of transportation. The Canadas are even now, loyal as they undoubtedly are, beginning to chafe at the useless custom-house barriers interposed between their trade and that of the United States. Look on a map, and observe what a tongue of land drops down between New York and Michigan. Produce and goods pass freely between these two states, without delay, without restraint, and without taxes, if it goes round the peninsula of Upper Canada. If it crosses that territory, it is subjected to numerous vexations and charges, and the increase of railroads is daily making those charges and delays more irksome. Why should they exist? There can be no good reason why this distinctive mark of vassalage to the Islands of the North Sea should long be continued. The force of public opinion must soon place Canada on a footing of equality and freedom with the United States. No *right* exists on either side to compel such an amalgamation of interests, yet it must take place, and all the sooner for a continuance of peace. The Oregon country must, all of it, not only up to 54° 40′, but beyond it, far up into what is now exclusively Russian, become peopled by the Anglo-Saxon race, thrown off from the teeming bosom of this glorious Union. This is the irresistible progress of our people. Like the flow of the ocean, it overwhelms all opposition. There is but one mode by which it can be retarded, and that is by abandoning those arts of peace, the steady prosecution of which will alone make the new country necessary or desirable, and engaging in an expensive war. What if England does claim Oregon? Is her claim better than that of the pope, who claimed the whole continent when first discovered? Of what use is an idle claim to territory that she has not the means

to occupy, and which she cannot hold against an advancing multitude on their way to occupy? She has, indeed, a few miserable hunters that yearly toil more to get less of that game, which their trade, aided by advancing civilization, is rapidly exterminating. But permanent settlers she has none, nor can she have. A war would preserve her nominal sovereignty fifty years more, not so much from her ability to hold, as from the inability of the United States to take possession. 300,000 active men, taken from their farms and employments for ten years, would diminish the industrial strength of the country one-half. According to the last census, there were in the United States, 2,725,439 white males, between the ages of 20 and 50; to take a tenth part of these from their labors to keep afoot 270,000 men, which would scarcely be adequate to man the army and navy, would paralyze the whole growth of the Union during the continuance of the war, which would consume, in ten years, at least the whole natural increase of the male population of the country. The consumption of capital would be in a still greater ratio. Not only would there be no accumulation of capital, but it would actually diminish year by year, through a consumption of actual wealth greater than its production. Every year of such a war would postpone the time when we should want Oregon, or be able to use it, five years. The labor of 2,000,000 slaves, employed in raising cotton, would become comparatively valueless. The vast tonnage employed in carrying that cotton to Europe, would be rotting at the docks, while the seamen now employed in bringing wealth into the country, would only be supported at the public expense. The general diminution of profit would paralyze the demand for manufactures. The whole healthy and luxuriant growth of a nation, whose every citizen is actively employed in adding to the general wealth, would shrink and wither in the license and idleness of the camp, and under the influence of a depreciated and worthless paper currency. There would then be no necessity for a "balance of power" on this continent, nor need of the banded despots of Europe to interfere to prevent the growth of the "great republican empire." The consumption of its strength in a fruitless contention for what would be arrived at sooner by peaceful methods, would be the best plan by which a "balance of power" could be established here. The fears which the rapid growth of the United States has engendered in the minds of the governments of Europe have been elicited by the extraordinary vigor applied to the arts of peace. If by any means that strength can be diverted and wasted upon warlike movements, the great cause of those fears will have been removed. The Union will cease to grow; the elements of discord will have become sown; the strong bond of mutual interest that now binds the states together in active and free intercourse, will have become loosened through the decay of that intercourse. The now compact, vigorous, and formidable empire, rapidly overlapping and drawing within its influence the surrounding territories, not to oppress, but enrich, which affords an eminent example of the success of self-government and the blessings that attend it, will have become a disorganized, weak, and despicable assemblage of states, torn by factions and contending interests, and the prey of the intrigues of all the wily despots of Europe. Mr. Calhoun, in the United States Senate, on the 16th March, 1846, clearly and forcibly set forth the evils that would result even from a war successful as the most sanguine could wish.

Valuable as Oregon may be, it certainly is not worth so vast an outlay, simply to enforce prematurely the relinquishment on the part of England

of a nominal title to a country she can never occupy as an imperial government. The whole country is open to the settlement of any and all her people, who will leave behind them their political sympathies, and be contented to occupy the land and enjoy its fruits, with the most perfect freedom.* For the *people* of England to fight for Oregon, is to contend merely for the privilege of sending seven thousand miles for a governor, instead of providing one themselves; a greater absurdity, perhaps, never presented itself for the consideration of the utilitarian, in this peculiarly practical age. The disastrous effects of war would by no means be confined to the United States, or the years of actual hostilities. England would, doubtless, maintain a vigorous and formidable battle; but her commercial supremacy must necessarily perish forever. During the twenty years which ended with the peace of 1815, the inventions of Watt, Arkwright, and Whitney, conferred upon Britain the monopoly of the cotton manufacture. It was not until after the peace that that trade took root in Europe. It has now flourished there, until the goods of Europe are seriously competed with in all the markets of the world. Nevertheless, England, up to this day, *consumes and manufactures 56 per cent of all the cotton* produced in the world. In 1816 she used 90,000,000 lbs., and in 1845, 500,000,000 lbs. The product of the cotton manufacture constitutes *one-half her whole exports*, and occupies and provides bread, little as they get, for 2,000,000 persons. 2,500,000 *black* slaves in the United States, provide the raw material which employs 2,000,000 *white* slaves in England. A state of war would transfer the cotton manufacture to Europe. The black slaves of the United States would continue to raise cotton for Europe, and find ample employ in other agricultural productions. The white slaves of England will have no resource but starvation or emigration. In the year 1842, five of the nations of Europe enacted tariffs avowedly hostile to England, in order to

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* The expense of carrying on a war, may be gathered from the amount of English loans during four memorable periods in British history, as follows:—

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Seven years' war, | from 1755 to 1763 | £52,100,000 |
| American war, | from 1776 to 1784 | 75,000,000 |
| French Revolutionary war, | from 1793 to 1802 | 158,500,000 |
| War against Bonaparte, | from 1803 to 1814 | 206,300,000 |

Besides the property tax. In 1813, were raised two loans of twenty-one millions and twenty-two millions; and it deserves to be recorded that a subscription loan to carry on the war against France, was filled up in London in fifteen hours and twenty minutes, to the amount of eighteen millions, Dec. 5, 1796.

It will be seen that the large increase of the national debt of Great Britain has taken place at the periods of the several wars of that country with the continental powers and with America. When we take into view the immense loss of life and loss of property which inevitably accompany war, without any possible resulting good, we can only look upon it as the greatest calamity that can be imposed upon a people by their rulers.

War is called by Erasmus, "the malady of princes." It is computed by able writers that, from the beginning of the world to the present time, no less than 6,860 millions of men have perished in the field of battle, being about seven times as many as the present number of inhabitants in the world.

England spent 65 years in war, and 62 in peace, in the 127 years previous to the close of the last war in 1815. In the war of 1688, she spent 36 millions sterling; in the war of the Spanish succession, 62 millions; in the Spanish war, 54 millions; in the seven years' war, 112 millions; in the American war, 136 millions; in the war of the French revolution, 464 millions; and in the war against Bonaparte, 1,159 millions; thus forming a total expenditure for war, in 127 years, (from the revolution in 1688, to the downfall of Napoleon in 1815,) of 2,023 millions of pounds sterling.

cause their own manufactures to flourish. If England becomes embroiled with the great source whence supplies of raw material are drawn, she must surrender the trade for the advantage of Europe. The cotton and its manufactures must be transported in neutral bottoms. Doubtless with a view to such a result, M. Guizot has declared the intention of strict neutrality on the part of France, in the event of a war with the United States. The common hostility which Europe has very recently displayed in her tariff laws, against the commercial supremacy of England, will become embodied in an avowed neutrality. The great question whether "the flag shall cover the goods," will then come for fixed settlement. The coalition of 1804, dissolved at Copenhagen, must be fought over again, and returning peace find England shorn of her commercial predominance. The United States must, however, sustain a great loss; because her best and surest customer will have become embarrassed. The mighty power which has laid open every quarter of the world to the consumption of cotton goods, the vast capital, boundless enterprise, and resistless energy, which alone have been able to find markets for the continually swelling crops of southern cotton, must become crippled and broken. No nation of Europe can do for the commercial world what England has done for it. She has grown great, it is true, as the result of her own efforts; but the industry of every individual of the commercial world has derived some benefit from the exertions that have made her great. France has 50 per cent more population than Great Britain, yet her trade does not compare with that of the British Isles; the immense resource of capital, as well as enterprise and energy, is wanting. It will be a disastrous day for the commercial world when the power of England is broken, and broken it will be by another war. We regard her military parade as of very little consideration; a nation that cannot feed its own inhabitants in time of peace, or employ its inhabitants without the aid of those nations whom it threatens, is by no means formidable, how great soever may be its display of force. It is the commercial mischiefs, and not the military ones, which may result from a war, that the United States and the cause of human liberty have to dread.

## Art. V.—THE COPPER MINES OF LAKE SUPERIOR.

It has been long known that masses of pure copper were scattered through a portion of that vast region which borders Lake Superior, although it is only but recently that the existence of extensive copper mines, in this quarter, has been clearly ascertained. During the period when the jurisdiction of France was extended over that tract of country, which afterwards constituted the old northwestern territory, the copper of the lakes as we are informed by Charlevoix, and other travellers through this portion of the west, was wrought into candlesticks, crosses, and censers, for the use of the Catholic church. As early as 1772, a mass of pure silver was also discovered, imbedded in a fragment of other ore, and was, subsequently, carried across the Atlantic, and deposited in the British Museum. During the following year a mining company was formed, and, a charter having been obtained, mining operations were commenced; but, in conse-

quence of the unsettled condition of affairs between our own country and Great Britain, they were soon relinquished.

After the territory which embraces the mining district had been ceded to our own country, and especially when it came to be included within the organized bounds of the state of Michigan, the attention of enterprising men was more particularly directed to the mineral resources of that section of the west. Geological investigations were accordingly commenced, under the auspices of the state, and were soon extended to the southern shores of Lake Superior, which were included within its territorial boundaries, while the researches of that scientific and excellent man, the late Dr. Houghton, the State Geologist, were directed to this part of the territory. A rock of pure copper, of great size and weight, lying upon the bank of the Ontonagon river, about twenty-five miles from its mouth, which long attracted the attention of travellers, and which indicated the further existence of that metal in this quarter, has since been removed to the city of Washington.

The peculiar character of the region bordering Lake Superior, affords evidence of the existence of extensive mineral resources. It is wild and rocky, of primitive formation, broken by mountain chains, here and there covered with silver firs or pines, furnishing but sparse agricultural advantages, and clearly exhibiting volcanic influences. So barren, indeed, is the territory, of all that furnishes subsistence to man, that it has remained, for ages, a vast solitude, whose silence has been only occasionally broken by an Indian camp, or a fur trading expedition wandering from its ordinary haunts, or the more frequent surges of Lake Superior, which thunder against the bases of its desolate rocks, and which is itself coursed only by a few vessels that are connected with mining operations, or the fur trade.

From recent investigations, however, it is clearly ascertained, that the volcanic region, bordering Lake Superior, abounds in mines of copper, more or less extensive, mingled sometimes with silver, or other ore, and numerous leases have been granted by the general government to individuals, for mining purposes. In accordance with the leases so granted, extensive works have been constructed, and mining operations have been commenced upon a scale of considerable magnitude. Numerous companies have been, moreover, formed for the purpose of more effectively working the mines. Many tons of the copper ore, prepared for smelting, have been transported from the mines to the east, especially to Boston; and every day is developing facts connected with the copper resources of that region, which are calculated to gratify the anticipations of those who have embarked in the enterprise of working them.

Among the companies which have been formed for this purpose, is the *Lake Superior Mining Company*, which is said to be the pioneer in the mining operations of the lakes, and whose enterprises have been commenced on Eagle river. The *Pittsburgh Company*, is located at Copper Harbor. The *New York and Lake Superior Mining Company* have also erected extensive works, and are prosecuting mining operations with success. The *Isle Royale Company* is engaged in the same enterprise. To these may be added: The *Eagle Harbor Company*, at Eagle Harbor; the *Boston Company*, two miles east of Agate Harbor; the *Bohemian Company*, back of Agate Harbor; the *Northwestern Company*, at Grand Maria's Harbor; the *Superior Company*, adjoining Copper Harbor;

the *Albion Mining Company*, three miles south of Eagle river; the *North American Company*, west of Eagle river; and the *Chippewa Mining Company*, upon the Ontonagon and Eagle rivers.

Through the enterprise of these several companies, a large amount of copper ore has been already mined, and a considerable portion has been transported to the eastern states. We are also informed, by a recent journal, that a company has been lately organized, in the city of Boston, with a capital of one hundred and fifty thousand dollars, with which works are to be erected in Chelsea, for the purpose of smelting copper. Although, of course, the veins of copper are of unequal richness, yet it has been discovered that the proportion of pure copper which is yielded by the ore of the mines is so great, as to warrant their being worked, and that, too, with effect. We have before remarked, that silver is found, mingled with the copper ore to some extent; and we learn from a recent letter, which appears to be entitled to some credit, that a mass of native silver, of the size of the thumb, has been discovered among the ore. Large masses of pure copper, some of eight hundred pounds weight, and others weighing sixty pounds, have been found; although it is stated that the reported assays of the copper ores of Lake Superior will be about 25 per cent.*

There have been various computations, exhibiting the proportion of copper to the ore. Dr. C. T. Jackson, having analyzed a portion of the Eagle river ore, arrived at the following result: Analysis of 1,500 grains of the rock—Silver from the metals, 114 grs. 49 pwts.; copper, 27.51; silver from the washed ore, 3.75; copper, 90.35; amount of silver, 118.24; do. of copper, 162.86; refined or pure silver, obtained by a reduction of the chloride, 114.5 grs. The above analysis gives the quantity of silver in a ton of the rock—152.66—valued at $20 per lb., av. $3,053 20. A ton of the rock contains 203.57 of copper, valued at 16 cents per lb.; value of one ton of the rock, $3,036 77.

In a ton of the ore, as delivered by the miner at the pit bank, on Eagle river, we are informed that there is the following per centage:

| | |
|---|---|
| Of silver,..... | $87 25 |
| Of copper,..... | 42 10 |
| Total,..... | $129 35 |

Although, probably, many exaggerated statements are put forth for mere purposes of speculation, there seems but little reason for doubting that the copper mines of Lake Superior are of great value. It will be remember-

* The Editor of the New York Tribune has received letters from Copper Harbor and vicinity, which give glowing accounts of the richness of the more recent developments of the mineral region. We certainly have no objection to the truth of these statements, but they are so extraordinary, that we cannot resist the suggestion that they are a little exaggerated. A letter, dated "Superior Copper Co.'s Office, March 6th, 1846," says, "The prospects of Lake Superior were never so bright as now. Enough of pure silver will be raised here this winter, to pay all the expenses incurred since this country was first rented. Childs, at Copper Falls, is getting solid pieces of native silver weighing 24 oz. each." At Eagle river, the same writer says, "they have estimated the product of a single day at *ten thousand dollars*, or ten barrels of silver, at $1,000 each." Another letter, dated at Detroit, April 7th, 1846, says, "the Copper Falls Company have struck silver, and thrown out solid lumps of an ounce weight each, of *solid silver*, and a great many smaller lumps." The Detroit Daily Advertiser notices the receipt of letters from the copper region, which would seem to corroborate these statements. We would, however, caution the too sanguine, and suggest a homely adage, that "all is not gold," &c.

ed, that it is only but recently that the lead mines of the northwest have begun to attract attention, and we already find that a large amount of this product is yielded, not only for consumption within our own territory, but also for exportation to China, and other parts of the world. We now annually import into the United States about one thousand four hundred and eighty-three tons of copper, which, at 16 cents a pound, its ordinary price, yields the sum of $474,560 90, a sum which is paid to individuals abroad. For the subjoined table of the copper trade of Great Britain, we are indebted to Mr. J. R. St. John, who appears to have examined the mines of Lake Superior with great care, and to whom we are indebted for many other statistical facts on this subject.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Great Britain imported in 1840, 28,757 tons of ore, at $86 70 per ton, yielding in metal 5,751 tons, which sold for..... | | $2,493,031 90 |
| The amount produced in Great Britain, estimated by Mr. D. La Beche, is about..... | | 6,000,000 00 |
| Making her copper trade..... | | $8,493,031 90 |
| Exports per annum 17,777 tons, at 16 cts per lb.,..... | $5,973,072 00 | |
| Leaving her to consume..... | $2,219,969 90 | |

There can be no doubt that the copper mines of England have been a source of great profit to the British empire, and the mines of this character, in the county of Cornwall, have yielded the average amount of fifty-seven thousand five hundred and seventy-three tons of ore each year, the ore yielding five thousand four hundred and seventy-three tons of pure copper. Our own mines will probably produce a much larger proportion of pure copper to the quantity of the ore, and will be thus rendered more productive. The extent to which investments in copper stocks are made abroad, may be inferred from the following table :

ENGLISH COPPER STOCKS.

The following is a list of copper stocks, taken at random from the price current of the London Miners' Journal, of November 15, 1845.*

| Shares. | Company. | £Paid. | £Price. | Shares. | Company. | £Paid. | £Price. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 235 | Andrew and Nangiles,. | 25½ | 70 | 1024 | Wheal Maria,..... | 1 | ¾700 |
| 100 | Bottallack,..... | 175 | 400 | 96 | Tresavean,..... | 10 | 300 |
| 114 | Charlestown,..... | — | 240 | 256 | Trenow Consols,..... | — | 170 |
| 1000 | Carn Brea,..... | 15 | 80 | 5000 | Treleigh Consols,..... | 6 | 3½ |
| 256 | Caradon Consols,..... | 45 | 140 | 4000 | United Hills,..... | 5 | 5 |
| 256 | Caradon Copper Mine,. | 4½ | 6 | 100 | United Mines,..... | 1000 | 900 |
| 1000 | Copper Bottom,..... | 1 | 5 | 6000 | Wicklow Copper,..... | 5 | 18 |
| 512 | Fowey Consols,,..... | — | 80 | 128 | Wheal St. Andrew,.... | 65 | 20 |
| 244 | Grambler and St. Anbyn, | — | 55 | 127 | Wheal Virgin,..... | — | 20 |
| 128 | Hallenbeagle,..... | — | 50 | 256 | West Caradon,..... | 40 | 375 |
| 160 | Levant,..... | — | 150 | 3845 | West Wheal Jewel,.... | 10½ | 4 |
| 128 | Par Consols,..... | — | 500 | 128 | Wheal Providence,..... | 16 | 120 |
| 800 | South Towan,..... | 10 | 1½ | 256 | Wheal Sisters,..... | 22½ | 78 |
| 128 | South Caradon,..... | 5 | 400 | 256 | West Wheal Treasury, | 12 | 12 |
| 120 | Trethellen,..... | 5 | 100 | 256 | West Wh. Friendship,.. | — | 5 |

* The following synoptical statement relating to the copper mines of England, by Captain Hughes, United States Topographical Corps, is interesting at the present time, when our copper region of Lake Superior is opening such a wide field to American enterprise:

"Elevation of the surface above the level of the sea, from 200 to 300 feet; depth below the sea, about 1,370; total depth of the mine, 1,500 to 1,600 feet. Ores—chiefly yellow copper, variegated copper, red oxide of copper, blue and green carbonate of copper. Tin ore, or oxide of tin, also occurs, but not in very great abundance. Produce of the ores—9½ per centum of fine copper, average produce in 100 parts of ore. Depth of the

From causes which are now in progress, there seems but little reason to doubt that the mineral resources of Lake Superior will be rapidly developed. It is an enterprise new in our own country. Although Providence, by denying the country a fertile soil, has deprived it of the position of agricultural advantages, it has, nevertheless, granted it counterbalancing advantages in the teeming abundance of mineral wealth. It is likewise probable that, with the advancement of mining operations in that region, other and more valuable minerals may be discovered. Agate, cornelian, and other minerals of value, are already found in abundance, scattered among the rocks. The enterprises of individuals have, moreover, been zealously directed to that quarter, and numerous steamboats and vessels have been recently constructed for the purpose of prosecuting trade with that part of the country. With the completion of a ship canal around the falls of St. Mary, an enterprise which has long been projected, and which will unite the chain of lakes in a continuous field of uninterrupted commerce, that magnificent tract of wilderness and waters will be brought more directly within the public view; and the copper mines of Lake Superior, aided by such a result, will, we doubt not, eventually supply the country with this useful product, and also furnish a large amount for exportation.

## Art. VI.—THE PROPOSED MODIFICATION OF THE TARIFF.

A CONSIDERATION OF THE MAXIMS CONTAINED IN THE SECRETARY'S ANNUAL REPORT ON THE FINANCES OF THE GOVERNMENT.

It was feared by many who are ardently attached to the principles of free trade, that the Secretary would not boldly advocate so great a change in the principles and details of the present tariff. Whatever his real opinions might be, many were apprehensive that the powerful influence of the manufacturing interests would deter him from advocating a change in a policy that has built up so many splendid fortunes during the last three years, and in the support of which are to be found a large number of the most wealthy capitalists of the Union.

It is a fact that, among the most intelligent free traders, you find many who assert that their principles, however true, are as yet unpopular in the United States; that years of discussion and experience are required to popularise truth on the tariff question. There is, undoubtedly, much truth in the assertion. But the discussion of the tariff question, during the last few years, has done more to enlighten public opinion respecting a true system of taxation, than all preceding discussions. There was, during the last presidential campaign, in the discussions both of the press

principal shafts—Woolf's engine shaft, 248 fathoms; Pearce's engine shaft, 275 fathoms. Quantity of water raised, from 2,000 to 3,000 gallons per minute. Power employed in drainage, 9 steam-engines. Average annual expense of drainage, £12,700, ($63,500.) Quantity of ore annually produced, 16,400 tons of copper ore, and a few tons of tin ore. Produce in metal, 1,517 tons of fine copper, and a little tin. Total returns or value of the produce in metal, £119,800, ($599,000.) Total cost of mines, £98,500, ($492,500.) Clear profit to the proprietors, £21,000 ($105,000) per annum. Amount of capital invested, £75,000, ($375,000.) Interest on capital invested, 280 per centum, after paying back the original capital. Number of men employed, about 2,500, of whom 1,450 are employed under ground. Manner in which the ores are disposed of—sold to the smelting companies, and smelted by them at Swansea, in South Wales."

and in the political assemblages of the people, a degree of boldness, fervor, and ability, that had never been witnessed before. The manifest inequality and oppression of the present tariff, had aroused the people to reflection and action. It is our opinion that the enactment of the present tariff has not at all retarded the adoption of a just system of taxation for the support of the general government. A nation, in order to enact wise and just laws, requires, generally, to feel the oppression of unwise and unjust ones. Truth, in matters of legislation, is usually arrived at after having experienced the evil effects of its antagonist.

The Secretary, in his report, has not, as we believe, advanced a single step beyond public opinion, in the measures he recommends. He does not, however, lag behind the prevailing sentiment of the time. The popular sentiment is, that the indirect system of taxation for the support of the general government will be tolerated, at least for a time. But the taxes must be so levied, or the duties so assessed, that the burdens will be as light as possible, and so as to draw an amount from each tax-payer, as nearly as practicable, in proportion to the ability of each to pay, and the benefit each receives. Or, which leads to the same result, no article must be subject to a higher rate of duty than that which will produce the greatest amount of revenue; and all discriminations below this higher rate, by which one article is taxed higher than another, must be for revenue, and to equalize, as much as possible, the burdens of the tax among the different grades of wealth.

The doctrines advocated by the Secretary, are daily becoming more popular with the people, and no retrograde movement is likely to take place. The principles of perfect free trade, an entire removal of the shackles that bind and restrict our foreign commerce, is not, as yet, demanded by the people. The public mind is, however, approximating to that state with much greater rapidity than many of its most enthusiastic advocates suppose. The perfect freedom of our internal commerce, that binds together the twenty-eight states of the Union, has produced the happiest results. Steam-power, and the recent application of the wonderful power of electricity in communicating intelligence, are destined to facilitate the period when the different nations of the earth will become neighbors, and when the policy of restricting the exchange of each others' surplus produce will be considered as proof of a barbarous age, when the true principles of commercial exchange, or the true interests of nations, were little understood.

The Secretary adopts certain principles of a fundamental nature, upon which the reasoning of the report is based. They are as follows:—

"1st. That no more money should be collected than is necessary for the wants of the government, economically administered.

"2d. That no duty be imposed on any article above the lowest rate which will yield the largest amount of revenue.

"3d. That, below such rate, discrimination may be made, descending in the scale of duties, or, for imperative reasons, the article may be placed in the list of those free from all duty.

"4th. That the maximum revenue duty should be imposed on luxuries.

"5th. That all minimums, and all specific duties, should be abolished, and ad valorem duties substituted in their place—care being taken to guard against fraudulent invoices and under-valuation, and to assess the duty upon the actual market value.

"6th. That the duties should be so imposed as to operate as equally as possible throughout the Union, discriminating neither for nor against any class or section."

These general maxims are sound; though the first and second are not expressed in terms the most appropriate, and the sixth is not adhered to by the Secretary in his argument.

The maxim, that no more money should be collected than is necessary for an economical support of the government, standing by itself, considered without any reference to the other maxims, amounts to nothing. The report itself is an argument that the present tariff does not violate this maxim; that it does not produce more revenue than is required to support the government, though the strictest economy be observed. The estimates of the Secretary, both of receipts and expenditures, for the years 1846 and '47, make the expenditures to exceed the receipts; reducing the balance in the treasury at the close of the last fiscal year, ending June 30th, 1845, of $7,658,306.22, to $4,332,441.07, at the close of the fiscal year ending June 30th, 1847. The advocates of the present tariff may, therefore, with perfect propriety, insist that it does not violate this maxim; that no more money is collected under the present tariff than is required for an economical administration of the government. There is not a single advocate of the present tariff, or of any tariff designed for protection, who would object to this maxim. If the present tariff produces too much revenue, its friends would say, increase the rates of duty so as to prohibit importation to a greater extent, and thus lessen the revenue to the wants of the government. If too little revenue is collected under the present tariff, its friends would say, tax the free list, and procure more. So it will be seen that this maxim can be adhered to strictly, without a change in the present tariff: or it is as applicable to a high tariff as to a low one.

The phrase "economical administration of the government," has no definite meaning. One man may think it good economy to expend forty millions of dollars annually, another thirty, and another but twenty millions. One might think it good economy to expend millions annually on works of internal improvement, and millions more to increase the army and navy; while another would consider these expenditures wasteful and extravagant.

It would have been better to have expressed the maxim thus:—

No more money ought to be collected than is required to defray the necessary expenses of the government; and this necessary sum should be raised in such a manner as to draw as little as possible from the pockets of the people, except what goes into the treasury of the nation.

Almost every writer on political economy, who has attained any celebrity, agrees to this maxim. Adam Smith expresses the latter clause of the maxim in these words: "Every tax ought to be so levied as to take out and keep out of the pockets of the people as little as possible over and above what it brings into the treasury of the nation."

All tariffs, or indirect systems of taxation, must violate, to some extent, this maxim, except the duties are laid exclusively on articles not produced in the country, the government of which imposes the duty. A duty laid on tea and coffee, and other articles not grown or manufactured in the United States, would be in harmony with this maxim. Every dollar raised upon the importation of these articles would go into the treasury. But a duty imposed upon the manufactures of iron, wool, or cotton, taxes the people a certain amount for revenue, and a certain amount for the benefit of those whose capital is invested in producing the home articles, similar to those on which the duty is imposed.

Suppose the people of the United States should consume annually $100,000,000 worth of cotton goods, and that the one-half should be imported, and the other half produced at home. In this case, a duty of 20 per cent on the $50,000,000 worth imported, would bring into the treasury $10,000,000 revenue. But this amount would be but a moiety of that drawn from the pockets of the people. The duty would enable the domestic producer to demand at least 20 per cent more for the $50,000,000 worth produced at home, making $10,000,000 drawn from the pockets of the people in the shape of a bounty to the domestic manufacturers. Thus it is seen that, in order to get $10,000,000 into the treasury, we tax the people $20,000,000!

If, in raising our town, county, or state taxes, or if a system of direct taxation was resorted to for the support of the general government, and the tax-gatherer, after he had collected the amount each individual was assessed, should convert to his own use the one-half of the whole, not an individual would be found in the whole community but would remonstrate against the fraud, and insist that the vengeance, or rather the justice of the law, should be meted out to the transgressor. Yet the people of the United States tolerate the perversion of the maxim we have quoted; and more than $1,000,000,000 have already been paid into the national treasury under a system that has drawn from the pockets of the people, at the lowest estimate, more than $1,500,000,000 more to go into the pockets of the wealthy manufacturers of the United States!

Can this evil be remedied without abandoning the indirect system of taxation? Not unless you could raise sufficient revenue by taxing, exclusively, articles of importation not grown or made in this country. A tax levied, exclusively, upon such imports of which similar articles are not produced in the United States, would, unquestionably, be less burdensome to the people. If the necessary revenue could be raised by taxing such imports, it would be preferable, in point of economy at least, to a system that taxes the people millions annually, to increase the profits of particular interests. Such a system of taxation would not tax the people a dollar that would not go into the treasury of the nation. It is true the exactions under such a system would not be in proportion to the ability to pay. No system of taxation but a direct one, demanding from each tax-payer a certain rate per cent on the assessed value of his property, can operate equitably upon all classes of the people. Yet, as much equality, in this respect, would result from a system that taxed, exclusively, articles of non-production, as results from the present system of raising nearly the whole revenue from such imports of which we have corresponding domestic articles.

An objection, however, might be urged against a system of discrimination that would tax, exclusively, such imports of which we do not produce corresponding articles. If we deny the right to discriminate in favor of the home article, it might be asked with what propriety we claimed the right to discriminate against it. If you cannot discriminate for protection, can you justly discriminate against it? To place higher duties on such articles as we do not produce at home, or to tax such articles exclusively, may be called by some a discrimination against the home producer. You cannot levy the taxes, under our present false system, so as to be the least burdensome to the people, without being accused of a design to destroy the industry of the country.

But is it a fact, that if the duties were exclusively laid on such imports

as we do not produce corresponding articles, it would be unjust to any particular branch of domestic industry? Would we, by laying the duties exclusively on such imports, discriminate against any branch of home industry? We think not. A refusal to tax *all* imports of which we grow or make a similar domestic article, is, certainly, dealing equally with every class of domestic producers. It is not discriminating either for or against any branch of home industry where all are treated alike. Refuse to tax that portion of our imports of which we produce a similar article, and each branch of home industry will prosper in proportion to the genius, talents, and natural advantages, possessed by those engaged in it. It appears clear to our mind, that if the necessary amount of revenue could be raised by taxing such imports of which we do not produce similar articles, the burden of the indirect system of taxation would be one-half less than it now is, or would be under any arrangement of the tariff that would draw the chief part of the revenue from imports of which we produce corresponding domestic articles.

It follows, then, that if you cannot raise the whole revenue from this cheaper or less burdensome method, you should, at least, endeavor to raise by it as large an amount as possible. You should, at least, place the maximum revenue duties on such imports as are not produced at home, and raise the balance of the necessary revenue by a lower or minimum rate on such imports of which we do not produce similar articles.

The second maxim laid down by the Secretary in his report, is—

"That no duty be imposed on any article above the lowest rate which will yield the largest amount of revenue."

This is an important maxim, theoretically sound, though it cannot be practically carried out in its fullest sense. If this maxim could be practically applied, that is, if it were possible to ascertain that particular rate of duty on each article of importation that would produce the greatest amount of revenue, the maxim would be of much greater importance than it is. But it is not possible to ascertain such a rate of duty. Let us allude to some of the difficulties that prevent the practical application of this maxim: What is that particular rate of duty on any given article of importation, that will produce the largest amount of revenue? We will illustrate the difficulty of ascertaining such a rate of duty by selecting for that purpose a single article of importation—say a certain description of woollen goods: If a yard of broadcloth can be imported and afforded in our market at $2, and the same quantity of domestic goods cannot be afforded less than $3 a yard, what would be the rate of duty on the imported article that would produce the largest amount of revenue?

In the first place, we have obviated one difficulty, in supposing the cost both of the foreign and domestic article. It requires an intimate knowledge of the process of manufacture, and the advantages and disadvantages possessed by two trading countries, in the manufacture of a certain article, to enable one to judge, with any degree of accuracy, of the difference in the cost of manufacturing the article in the two countries. This difficulty being obviated by the supposition, the next is to state the rate of duty in the supposed case, that will bring the most revenue. A duty of one dollar a yard would equalize the cost of the imported and the domestic article, and thus bring them into our market upon terms of fair competition. But would one dollar be the rate that would produce the greatest amount of revenue? What evidence have we that a duty of one dollar a yard would produce as

much revenue as one of twenty, forty, sixty, eighty, or any other number of cents less than one dollar? The amount of revenue that will accrue under any rate of duty, depends upon the quantity imported. Now, who can state the extent which the importation of the foreign article would decrease, and the consumption of the domestic article increase, under a duty of one dollar a yard? Also, how much would the ability of the consumers to purchase, be lessened by a duty which is equal to one-half of the cost of the imported article? It is generally admitted that the cheaper an article of necessity can be had, the greater will be its consumption. A duty of fifty cents a yard, in the supposed case, would destroy home competition. But would the increased importation that would result—partly from driving the domestic article out of the market, and partly from a reduction in the price of the article—make up, or more than make up the deficiency occasioned by the reduction in the rate? And, if it could be ascertained that a duty of fifty cents a yard would produce more revenue than a duty of one dollar a yard, we would then inquire whether a duty of fifty cents a yard would produce more than one of forty, or sixty cents?

All these questions, and many others of equal difficult solution, must be answered definitely, before that particular rate of duty which will yield the greatest amount of revenue can be ascertained. To say that a duty of twenty cents a yard will produce more revenue than one of thirty, or fifty, implies that we know the extent that the lower duty will increase the importation of the article, and the higher duty decrease it. It also implies that we know the extent that the lower and the higher duty will increase or decrease the consumption of the domestic rival.

We might suggest many other difficulties that would render futile all attempts to ascertain the maximum rate of duty on an article of importation; but it is not necessary. We have merely thrown out these few observations to show the importance of observing great caution in stating a maxim upon which an argument is to be based. The maxim we are considering, aside from the impracticability of its application, would lead to the supposition that there may be more than one rate of duty put upon an article that will bring the greatest amount of revenue. It says, "no rate of duty must be imposed on any article above the *lowest* rate that will bring the largest amount of revenue." The term, "lowest," is superfluous. There can be but one rate of duty that will bring the greatest amount of revenue. Whatever that rate may be, no other rate will produce as much. If the greatest amount of revenue that will accrue on a given article of importation be $10,000, and the rate of duty that will produce that sum be 20 per cent, you can produce any sum less than $10,000 by two different rates of duty, the one less, and the other greater than 20 per cent; but no other rate will produce as much as $10,000. It is, therefore, erroneous to suppose that there can be more than one rate of duty on an article, that will bring the largest amount of revenue. The following will better express the idea intended to be conveyed by the maxim:

No article shall be subject to a higher rate of duty than that which will yield the largest amount of revenue.

But the Secretary by no means recommends the adoption, in all cases, of such rates as will yield the largest amount of revenue.

"Nor," says the report, "should maximum revenue duties be imposed on all articles, for this would yield too large an amount of revenue."

The Secretary suggests, that maximum revenue duties only should be

imposed upon luxuries; and that the balance of the revenue required, be raised by adopting different rates of duty on different articles of necessity, below the maximum rates.

We have already alluded to some of the difficulties which prevent the discovery of the maximum rate, or the rate that will yield the most revenue. If it is proper to institute a comparison between two impossibilities, we should say that the greater impossibility is to ascertain the particular rate of duty on each article of importation, below the maximum rate, that will bring a certain amount of revenue, or as much revenue as is necessary for the support of the government. If you cannot ascertain the rate that will produce the most revenue, you cannot ascertain the one that will produce a given amount, or the amount that may be required. You cannot measure trade by any rule of proportion between the different rates of duty, or the amount of taxes, that restrict it. No one can tell the amount of revenue required for a series of years. Or, if the wants of the government could be definitely stated, no one could state the particular rate of duty, on each article of importation, that would produce the required amount. Periodical changes in the revenue laws are an inevitable result of the system itself. No human foresight, mercantile experience, or political sagacity, can prevent the necessity of these changes, so long as the indirect system of taxation exists.

We may, however, use the experience we have acquired, from the operation of the various tariff laws that have been enacted, with a view to approximate to the principles of the maxim we are considering. The Secretary, in his report, has shown, conclusively, that the present tariff is far above the revenue standard; that it is too high for revenue; that, in many cases, they destroy revenue.

The third maxim laid down by the Secretary, is:

"That below such rate, (the maximum rate,) discrimination may be made, descending in the scale of duties, or, for imperative reasons, the article may be placed in the list of those free from all duty."

The propriety of discriminating, or adopting different rates of duty on different articles of importation, will not be doubted by any who have given the subject the slightest reflection. The legitimate objects in discriminating, are to preserve the revenue standard inviolate, and to equalize, as much as practicable, the burdens of taxation among the different grades of wealth. Without adopting different rates of duties, on different articles of importation, the burdens of taxation would be greatly increased. The same rate of duty on two different articles of importation, might prohibit the importation of the one, and throw the whole burden of the tax on the other. One uniform rate of duty would necessarily be, on some articles, greatly above that rate which will yield the greatest amount of revenue; while on others it would be much below it. Discrimination, therefore, becomes imperative in all tariffs based upon revenue principles. Further illustrations on this part of the maxim are unnecessary, as no one denies the propriety of discrimination; and the only difference of opinion, as regards discrimination, is, in relation to the legitimacy of the objects to be accomplished by it. The friends of the present tariff contend, that the most important object of discriminating duties, is to afford protection to certain branches of industry. They do not limit the power, or the expediency, to discriminate to those rates of duty below those which will yield the largest amount of revenue; but are willing to transcend the revenue limit,

and thus make protection, instead of revenue, the principal object of the duty. On the contrary, the doctrine of the Secretary, in the second maxim, is, that in no case ought the rate of duty to be above that which will yield the most revenue; and, in the maxim we are now considering, he holds that discriminations below this rate, "descending in the scale of duties," may be made.

We now come to consider the latter clause of the third maxim: "For imperative reasons, the article may be placed in the list of those free from all duty."

We agree with the doctrine expressed in this part of the maxim. But what is meant by "imperative reasons?" If a *good* reason can be given why an article should be admitted duty free, we say, admit it free. If an article can be, and is produced in this country, as cheap, or cheaper, than it can be imported, and produced to an extent to satisfy all demand for it, a duty levied upon it would produce little or no revenue; consequently, such an article might, with perfect propriety, be transferred to the free list. Raw cotton, and many other agricultural products, may, for this reason, be admitted free. Whether such a reason may be termed an imperative one, or not, we deem it a *good* one. It is the height of folly to levy duties where they produce no revenue. The report says:

"It is believed that sufficient means can be obtained, at the lowest revenue duties, on the articles now subjected to duty; but, if Congress desire a larger revenue, it should be procured by taxing the free articles, rather than transcend, in any case, the lowest revenue duties. It is thought, however, that, without exceeding the limit in any case, an adequate revenue will be produced, and permit the addition to the free list of salt and guano."

We consider this an abandonment of at least one of the fundamental principles upon which the Secretary bases his argument. Tea and coffee are imported, under the present tariff, free of duty; and the Secretary is of the opinion that sufficient revenue can be raised by adopting the lowest revenue rates of duty on such articles as are dutiable under the present tariff; and that salt and guano, now dutiable, may be added to the free list.

There are not, in the whole catalogue of imports, two articles that could be taxed with greater propriety than tea and coffee. Every principle of the report proclaims them proper articles to bear a duty; yet the Secretary suggests that they remain in the free list! What is the "imperative reason" for transferring tea and coffee to the free list? The Secretary has given none; he can give none. Is the object of their free admission to lessen the burdens of the poor? Do they partake of the character of necessaries of life in a greater degree than cottons or woollens? In short, do you relieve the industrious portion of the community by admitting tea and coffee free? To all of these interrogatories we answer in the negative. There is no "imperative reason," no good reason, not even the shadow of a reason, for their free admission. To admit them free is a violation of the revenue principle in adjusting the tariff; it is to afford protection. It creates a necessity for higher duties on the woollen and cotton imports, the iron, sugar, &c.; articles of far greater necessity to the laboring classes of the community. A moderate revenue duty on tea and coffee would bring, annually, at least three millions of dollars into the treasury; and that without materially lessening the quantity imported, or depriving

the consumers of the ability to consume these generally considered luxuries of civilized life. For these reasons, and many others that we might suggest, we differ with the Secretary in the suggestion that the free list in the present tariff be continued. If tea and coffee are to be continued in the free list, let it be considered as a concession to the protectionists. Let the cause of their free importation be understood by the people, who have to bear the burden of taxation. We believe, however, an attempt will be made, and a successful one, too, to have a moderate revenue duty placed upon these articles.

The fourth maxim, "That the maximum revenue duties be imposed on luxuries," we agree with, and consider it as opposed to the free admission of tea and coffee.

The fifth maxim is against all specific and minimum duties, and in favor of ad valorem duties. The reasoning of the report in favor of this change is conclusive, and we heartily concur with the views of the Secretary in this part of the report.

The sixth maxim asserts that the duties should be assessed so as to operate as equally as possible throughout the Union; that no discriminations against a particular class of people, or against a particular section of the Union, should be allowed.

This is a sound maxim, though not adhered to strictly in the suggestions of the report. The admission of tea and coffee free, we think a discrimination in favor of the protected interests, the cotton, woollen, and iron interests in particular sections of the Union. The admission of salt free of duty, is a discrimination against the manufacturers of salt in the states of New York and Virginia, as much so as it would be discriminating against the cotton manufacturers of the Eastern States to admit cotton imports free. Salt is a necessary of life; so is cotton and woollen goods. A moderate revenue duty on salt would not be more burdensome to the mass of our people than the duty on iron, or cotton and woollen manufactures. Therefore, the principle that will not admit of the duties being so laid as to discriminate against any particular section of the Union, would certainly be violated by a discrimination against the manufacturers of salt in the states of New York and Virginia. We believe about one-half of the salt consumed by our people is manufactured in these two states, principally in New York. Those whose capital is invested in the manufacture of salt, have the same right to claim a share in the benefits of our indirect system of taxation as those whose capital is invested in the manufactures of cotton or iron; particularly as it is evident that a moderate revenue duty on salt would not be more burdensome to the mass of the people than the same duty would be on cotton and woollen goods. If a portion of the necessary revenue is raised on salt, there is less to be raised on cottons, woollens, iron, and sugar; consequently, the burdens of the people would not be increased, all interests would be equally benefited, and no section of the Union would suffer from an unjust discrimination.

There are many important suggestions and valuable truths in the report, that we have not alluded to. Our object was simply to consider the fundamental maxims upon which the argument of the report is founded.

In conclusion, we consider the report one of the ablest that has ever emanated from the Treasury Department. For solidity and clearness of argument, it certainly has not been excelled by any previous report or public document on the same subject. Not only are the principles upon which

the report is founded, true, but the reasoning of the Secretary, in support of his theories, is exceedingly forcible. He has promulgated a greater number of important truths, and expressed them in more forcible language, than any of his predecessors. A. J.

NOTE.—Since the above was written, the Chairman of the Committee of Ways and Means has introduced a Tariff Bill, in which salt is retained in the dutiable class of imports. This is right. Tea and coffee are, however, to remain free of duty, unless there is a deficiency of revenue, when they are to be subject to a duty of 10 per cent. This is wrong. We hope there is sufficient intelligence in our national legislature to amend the bill by transferring tea and coffee to the dutiable list of imports; and, if too much revenue is produced, lower the duties on some of the imports of greater necessity. A. J.

## Art. VII.—THE PROPOSED DUTY ON FOREIGN BOOKS.

TO FREEMAN HUNT, ESQ., *Editor of the Merchants' Magazine:*

DEAR SIR—I am very happy to learn, from your letter, that you are so much interested in the proposed changes in the tariff, relative to duties on books, and that you are decidedly in favor of a more liberal policy than has hitherto been pursued by our government in this important matter. This was, indeed, to be expected from your position, and from the general tone of your able and influential journal. It is quite disheartening to notice the indifference with which even the scholars of our country have viewed the proposal and adoption of measures so detrimental to the interests of learning, and derogatory to our literary reputation. Our policy, even under the tariff of 1842, is more illiberal than that of any other nation in Christendom. Nay, our duties on books are more than four times as high as those levied in any other nation in the world, excepting Great Britain, and, perhaps, some of the Italian States. We have not, either, the same necessity for resorting to heavy taxation of literature, which Great Britain has. We are not compelled to oppress any interest, in order to raise a revenue for the expenses of the government. Neither have we the same apology for our illiberality which Great Britain might urge for hers. We do not possess, like her, large libraries, public and private, the accumulations of centuries. We have no British Museum, for the use of our scholars, receiving the unstinted patronage of the government. With all our boasted intelligence, there is no government in the civilized world, which affords so little direct encouragement to learning, and which throws in its way so many obstacles. I will not believe, however, that the policy of our government, in this particular, is irretrievably barbarous. The fact that great numbers of prominent men, of both political parties, are wishing for better things, is an omen of good. I had hoped that the predominance of a party, pledged to free trade, would secure to us the desired result. But, so small, materially speaking, is the importance of the importation of foreign books, that it has demanded no special attention, and the same principles which have been applied to other articles of merchandise, have been swept indiscriminately over them. This is deeply to be regretted. Free trade in literature should be discussed on its own merits, and not be mingled up with general considerations of protection and revenue. Books may certainly be placed in a different category. The arguments applicable to them are quite peculiar.

Books have justly been termed the raw material of all science and art,

and the chief instrument of social improvement. Without them, we recede towards barbarism. The more of them we have, the more rapidly do we advance in all that renders a people truly great and prosperous. The question of import duties on other articles, is merely one of dollars and cents. Its bearing upon the higher interests of the community is only indirect. But taxes upon books, not only take so much money from pockets the poorest filled, but, by acting as a partial prohibition, they check the progress of science and the arts, of intellectual and social culture, and, in short, of everything which tends to elevate a nation above a horde of heathen and savages.

If we prohibit the introduction of tea and coffee, what degree of injury does the community sustain? It is simply deprived of two agreeable luxuries. If, instead of prohibiting them entirely, we tax them so heavily as greatly to diminish the quantity imported, we restrict them more to the rich, and lessen the enjoyments of the poor. But in neither case would the material interests of the community be greatly injured.

On the other hand, if we prohibit books, we shut out the light of science, and spread over the land the darkness of ignorance. If we subject them to duties which operate to diminish the number imported, the consequences that follow differ only in degree—not in kind.

But the appeal is not weaker to those who regard only the material prosperity of the country, than to those who are particularly interested in her literary progress. We are a young nation, struggling manfully for pre-eminence. No argument can be necessary to prove that this pre-eminence can only be gained through the mighty aid of science. Yet science is taught by books, and mostly by books written and printed abroad, and not reprinted here. What could our engineers, our architects, our professional men, do without foreign books? Our people have derived from God, and from the exigencies in which they have been placed, a remarkable skill in the application of scientific principles to practical purposes. Shall we deprive them of the books which teach these principles? Is it not worth relinquishing thirty thousand dollars a year for the sake of training up more Fultons and Whitneys? It is but a paltry sum at the best, which we receive from duties on books, and most inadequate to compensate for the blighting influences of such duties.

I am aware that many advocate duties on books, not for raising revenue, but to protect American authors and publishers. It is singular that anything should be said in this connection about authors. What protection can they need? They certainly wish for none against foreign learning, but rather against domestic ignorance, which that learning might dispel. Create a love of reading and study in the community, and you encourage authors. In no way can this be done so effectually as by encouraging the free introduction of books. By placing heavy duties on books, Congress not only does not protect our authors, but discourages and oppresses them. Books, which other men, in other countries, and by-gone days, have written, and which are not, and cannot be reprinted here, are the tools with which they must work. These books do not exist in the country. All our libraries combined, would not furnish the books needed by a truly learned author, in any one of the great departments of human knowledge. Thus, poor authors are condemned to mediocrity, or compelled to cross the ocean, in order to avail themselves of the literary treasures of nations which pursue, in this respect, a wiser and more enlightened policy. And

yet, forsooth, we talk of protecting authors by perpetuating this state of things. There is, indeed, in every country, a class of men who arrogate to themselves the name of authors, and who are, in the language of another, "for the most part knaves and drudges, without talent or learning of any sort, save that of transmuting and adulterating the labors of others, and disguising their own rascality. Such persons fasten like leeches on any new work of talent, research, and industry; they forthwith announce some system, compilation, or abridgment of the same sort, every idea and statement of which is stolen, and then publish their spurious rubbish at a low price, advertise it as being the best work upon the subject, and find numbers of newspaper writers ready to puff off and eulogize their disinterested and meritorious labors!" Such are the only *authors* who can be benefitted by duties on books.

The effect of a tariff upon American publishers—excepting such of them as are engaged in the reprinting of English books—is the same as upon authors. It is, however, those republishers of English books whom it is deemed necessary to protect. Facts show, however, beyond the possibility of denial, that such protection is utterly needless. No man who is acquainted with the publishing business in England and the United States, can doubt that, without a tariff, our publishers can reprint all really popular English works—and no others are ever reprinted—so as to defy all competition from the English publishers. Nothing but an international copyright law could permanently injure the business of republishing popular English works.

But were the facts otherwise, how far would the necessity of protection extend? Not certainly beyond those books which are actually republished, and these are not more, probably, than two hundred a year, all told, and all of them English books. Can it protect our publishers to lay duties on French, or German, or Italian books, or old books in all languages, which they do not and cannot reprint? You might as well lay a tax upon tea to protect corn-growers, or a duty upon Egyptian mummies to protect body-snatchers. Nay, better; for the free introduction of all works which they do not reprint, so far from injuring, is directly and strongly advantageous to our publishers, inasmuch as it tends to cultivate a literary taste in the community, and this taste is the very condition of their existence.

If we must have a tariff upon books, none can be framed on wiser principles than that of 1842. It places the highest duties upon English books, the only class upon which the shadow of a claim for protection exists. It places higher duties upon this class of books when bound than when unbound, thus intending to throw work into the hands of our binders. It imposes lower duties upon books in Greek and Latin, which are not likely, for the present at least, to interfere with our own productions. It places the very low duty of five cents per volume upon books in foreign living languages, upon reports of legislative committees, &c., and upon all books that have been printed more than forty years, while it allows to literary institutions the privilege of importing books duty free.

The project of the Secretary of the Treasury, to lay a duty of 20 per cent, *ad valorem*, on all books, and withhold the privilege of exemption hitherto enjoyed by literary institutions, had it been adopted, would have been prohibitory of the classes of books favored by the tariff of 1842, while it diminished so little the tariff upon English books, as to afford scarcely any additional inducement for their importation. Its effect, there-

fore, would have been to diminish the revenue from this source, while it would have proved disastrous to the literary interests of the nation.

The Committee of Ways and Means have, it is said, modified the proposal of the Secretary, by diminishing the duty to 10 per cent, retaining, however, the uniform *ad valorem* principle, and pertinaciously withholding from literary institutions the privilege of introducing the books which they need, without duty. This project is obviously better, or rather, less atrocious, than the other. But it still preserves nearly all the objectionable features of the Secretary's plan. It reduces, by one-half, the duty on English books. It will therefore, without doubt, tend to increase the quantity imported, and, perhaps, prevent the revenue from books from being lessened. But it doubles the duty charged by the tariff of '42, on all the other classes enumerated above, and it was already as high as they would bear; nay, 5 per cent higher than a wise policy could justify. It besides grants no exemption to literary institutions. The grounds of this latter measure it is difficult to imagine. It has, indeed, been said that the privilege granted to literary institutions has been abused. But by whom? Not, certainly, by those institutions themselves. It is hard that they should be made to suffer for the deeds of others. Besides, this abuse, if it exists, is one which has a ready and easy remedy, without injury to these institutions. It is well known that most of our colleges and public libraries are poor, supported entirely by charity. What unreasonable and Vandal rapacity, to seize upon one-fifth or one-tenth of all they can beg, in order to appropriate it to government purposes!

But further, *ad valorem* duties on all books excepting new books, are practically impossible. When first published, books have a regular price, which it is not difficult to ascertain. This price, however, is seldom retained more than three or four years. They then, generally, diminish in market value, and the greater part fall to little more than their worth as waste paper, while some become scarce, and command prices two, three, ten, or a hundred times that originally affixed to them. Now, if these books were few in number, it might be possible to keep the run of them, and know, with a good degree of accuracy, their real value. But the number of different volumes which have been printed, has been estimated at about three millions; and who can tell which of the three millions would first be presented at the custom-house? No custom-house officer, and no bookseller in the United States, is competent to judge of the real value of one-half of the books annually imported. They have no regular market value. Different copies of the same book, in equally good condition, are, every day, sold in Europe, at prices varying all the way between the value of the book as waste paper, and its original publication price. Let it not be said that such books can possess but little intrinsic merit, and consequently, that it cannot be very detrimental to prohibit them. The fact is just the reverse. The very books of which we stand in perishing need, may, by skilful agents, now be bought up in Europe, at trifling prices. I mean, particularly, large works published in series. These works, if ordered, may be very expensive; but if purchased when they are accidentally thrown upon the market, may be procured for a mere song. Why not allow us the privilege of getting them before it is forever too late? I have heard people talk of what they call a home valuation of books, by which they mean, if they mean anything, to estimate the value at what it would cost to produce a book of the same size in this country; that is, every

folio shall be estimated at so much, every quarto at so much, every octavo at so much, &c. But this would not be an *ad valorem* tariff, but a specific one, of so much per volume. Why not say so, then, and not leave us in perplexity, by talking about an *ad valorem* tariff? We should then know, at least, what to depend on. But with an *ad valorem* tariff upon old books, we should not know what fate to expect. If we invoiced our books honestly, we should be in danger of losing many of them upon the suspicion of an attempt to defraud the revenue, and on others, called scarce books, we should have to pay fifty times as much as a man who had no conscience about presenting false invoices. But it is absurd to talk about a "home valuation" of books, which could not possibly be produced here. What is the home valuation of Ersch and Gruber's Encyclopædia, of the Memoirs of the French Academy, or of the great French work on Egypt? Such books could not be produced here. It must be remembered that another element besides printing and paper, enters into the value of a book. In short, to any one at all acquainted with the book business in Europe, it must appear just as absurd to talk about an *ad valorem* duty on old books, as to talk of an *ad valorem* duty on emigrants.

With these views, I cannot but feel the importance of united and vigorous efforts on the part of literary men in all sections of the country, and of all political parties, to avert a policy so calamitous to the cause of letters in our land as that with which we are threatened. The present time would seem to be a favorable one for the repeal of all duties on books. The project of the Secretary has attracted attention, and the majority of Congress are known to be in favor of the principles of free trade in other articles. Why should they not be, if they think the people desire it, in respect to an article which presents so much stronger claims to favor than any other.

I am, sir, very respectfully,
Your obedient servant,

Brown University,
April 20th, 1846.

C. C. JEWETT.

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# MERCANTILE LAW CASES.

## "BILLS OF EXCHANGE.—IMPORTANT DECISION."

[In the "Merchants' Magazine" for March, 1846, we published, under this head, a very full report of a case decided by Judge Watts, in the Commercial Court, (New Orleans.) We have since received a letter from JACOB BARKER, Esq., an eminent commercial lawyer of that city, which we cheerfully publish below. The London Economist, referred to in the letter of Mr. Barker, is conducted with singular ability, and although but recently established, it is rapidly obtaining an influence scarcely inferior to the most judicious journals in England. In publishing a brief but accurate statement of the facts, the legal editor of the Economist says, "The decision is in direct opposition to what has hitherto been considered the rights of such parties, and what has usually been the practice." The letter should have appeared in the April number of this Magazine, but it was not received until after the number was printed.—ED. MER. MAG.]

NEW ORLEANS, 19th March, 1846.

FREEMAN HUNT, ESQ., *Editor Merchants' Magazine:*

Dear Sir—You having published in the last number of your useful Magazine, the opinion of Judge Watts, of the Commercial Court of this city, in the case of Messrs. Jacob Little & Co. *vs.* R. D. Blossman and others, it may be acceptable to your readers also to know that the case is now pending before the Supreme Court of this state, and that the decision of Judge Watts, in a similar case, is

considered by the editors of the Economist, a standard London newspaper, in direct opposition to what has hitherto been considered the rights of such parties, and to what has usually been the practice in London. You will find this opinion expressed in that paper of 31st January last, page 136,* which you have herewith.

If this novel doctrine of Judge Watts should become law, it will revolutionize the whole course of trade.

Very respectfully, your obedient servant,

JACOB BARKER.

BREACH OF CONTRACT—PRINCIPAL AND AGENT—RAILROAD STOCK.

In the Court of Common Pleas, (Boston, Mass.,) Charles T. Bigelow *vs.* Paul Simpson, Jr. This action was instituted upon the following written contract: "I have this day bought of Charles T. Bigelow, Esq., one hundred shares of Wilmington Railroad stock, at twenty-two dollars per share, payable at any time within sixty days, at my option, with interest. PAUL SIMPSON, JR.

Boston, April 18, 1845."

The defence was, that said contract was never in fact delivered to the plaintiff, but was given to one George W. Pratt, a broker, upon the condition that said Pratt should procure for the defendant a counterpart thereof, signed by said Bigelow; which, in fact, was never done. It appeared in evidence, that Mr. Bigelow, the plaintiff, was a captain in the army, and that he placed said shares in the hands of Thos. J. Lobdell, a broker, to be sold at the highest market value; also, that Mr. Lobdell owned a great many shares of the same stock himself, and did not wish to have it known that he was in any way connected with the sale of them, and therefore placed them in the hands of said Pratt for sale. Pratt sold them, as above expressed, upon time, to the defendant, through his broker, George W. Foster. Pratt, on being called by the plaintiff, testified that he sold the shares on the 18th of April to Mr. Foster, who disclosed that he was acting for Simpson, and that he (Pratt) disclosed as his principal, Bigelow; that Foster said that he would inquire of Simpson whether he should be satisfied with Bigelow's name to the contract of sale, it being the custom, in contracts of this nature, that the names given should be satisfactory to the parties. The next day he saw Foster, and told him that if he was not satisfied with the name of Bigelow, he would give him the name of Lobdell. To this Foster made no reply, but soon after called upon him, and brought the paper now in suit, signed by Simpson. That Foster left said paper with him, with the understanding that he, Pratt, should procure the counterpart, and deliver it to Foster the next Tuesday. That he, Pratt, by counterpart, understood that he was to deliver to Simpson a paper, signed by Lobdell, and that on the next Tuesday he did give to Foster such a paper, and never heard of it afterwards. It also appeared in evidence, that soon after the sale, which was on Friday, said Bigelow, on learning that his shares had been sold on time, sold them to Lobdell, who paid him for them.

The defendant called George W. Foster, who testified that he made the bargain at the broker's board, with Pratt, on Friday. That Pratt gave him Bigelow as his principal—telling him that he thought Bigelow's name a satisfactory one, and also informing him when he might call and ascertain. That he, Foster, replied that he would report to his own principal, Simpson, and, if he was satisfied, would prepare and exchange the contracts; that on mentioning Bigelow's name to Simpson, he was informed that the name was satisfactory, and therefore Foster wrote, and Simpson signed the paper sued. That on next day he called on Pratt with the paper, and left it with him, with the understanding that Pratt should, by the next Tuesday, deliver to him a counterpart, signed by Capt. Bigelow. That Pratt did not mention Lobdell's name at all, and never offered to give him as principal. That he, Foster, immediately communicated this fact to Pratt, and afterwards offered the paper he took from him back to Lobdell, who refused to receive it.

The question was entirely one of fact for the jury, whether Simpson had consented to take Lobdell's signature as the counterpart to the paper signed. The jury found for the defendant.

* We receive the "Economist" regularly, and have noticed the remarks of that Journal on this decision.

MARINE INSURANCE—TOTAL LOSS.

In the Circuit Court, New York, July, 1845, Judge Edmonds presiding. Andrew Foster & Sons, *vs.* the Jackson Marine Insurance Company.

This was an action on a marine policy of insurance, effected on the ship Azelia, on her voyage from Trieste to New York. On the 16th of October she sailed from Trieste, with only part of a cargo which she had engaged, the remainder having not as yet arrived there. Shortly after she left Trieste, she encountered a gale which forced her back to that port, and in the interim the remainder of her cargo having arrived there, she took it in, and again set sail for New York on the 23d of October. After leaving Trieste the second time, she again experienced such tempestuous weather, that it was found necessary to put into Gibraltar, where she was examined and a survey held on her, and she was pronounced to be unseaworthy, and sold for about $1,000. The plaintiffs now claimed for a total loss. For the defence, it was alleged that the vessel was rotten at the time the policy was effected on her, and also, that her taking in a part of her cargo at Trieste, after she went there a second time, was a deviation from the voyage, and vitiated the policy.

The court charged the jury, that any act which incurred or increased a risk on the voyage, without necessity or reasonable cause, was a deviation. But that a deviation was allowable, if done fairly and in good faith, and to the best judgment of the master, and with no other object than to conduct the ship safely to her port of destination. In this case the vessel started on her return voyage on the 16th of October, and the next day returned to Trieste; and the question now to be considered was, whether that return was without necessity or reasonable cause. In order to answer that question, it was not necessary that the plaintiffs should satisfy the jury that there was actual danger, or that there would have been a loss from stress of weather, if she had not returned. It was sufficient for the jury if it was shown that the captain acted in good faith, and apprehended danger from the state of the weather. And in determining that question, the jury should take into consideration the nature of the voyage, the state of the sea, and the direction of the wind, which was then boisterous and directly against the vessel, and was unceasing all the time the ship was out of port. The jury should also consider the season of the year, which it appears is, in those latitudes, generally tempestuous and boisterous. If, after considering those circumstances, the jury found that the ship returned to port from stress of weather, then came the question, did her remaining at Trieste six days discharge the underwriters? The delay there would operate as a deviation, precisely in the same manner as any other departure from the direct course of her voyage, and must be governed by the same rules. The jury were therefore to determine, if there was a reasonable and probable cause for the ship staying there six days, although she might have put to sea during that time. And if the jury were satisfied that the captain was actuated by good faith in not going to sea on account of the unsettled state of the weather, and that he employed the time he remained there for taking in cargo, his doing so did not impair or render void the insurance. As to the question of seaworthiness, it was entirely a question of fact, to be determined by the jury. And in considering it, they must take into view the materials and construction of the ship, the qualifications of the captain, the number of the crew, and the general outfit of the vessel, and say were they, generally speaking, such as were fit for a voyage from Trieste to New York.

Verdict for plaintiffs, $8,327 49, being the amount claimed.

INSOLVENT DEBTOR—PREFERRED CREDITORS.

In the Supreme Judicial Court of Massachusetts, before Chief Justice Shaw. Peter Frothingham, *et al.*, *vs.* Wm. F. Haynes. P. W. Chandler for the plaintiffs, William Brigham for the defendant.

This was the case of an action by the assignees of Isaac P. Ford, an insolvent debtor, to recover from defendant the value of certain property, alleged to have been transferred to the defendant in order to give him a preference or priority over the other creditors. It appeared that Haynes in December last sued out a writ

against Ford, returnable at the January term of the Court of Common Pleas, and attached all his visible property. The writ was entered, and judgment was rendered by agreement for the plaintiff on the first day of the term. Execution was taken out in twenty-four hours, and the property was afterwards sold. It appeared that in this country, by a rule of the court, the new document is not made up for the inspection of the bar until the Saturday after the first Tuesday of the term. Ford was subsequently forced into insolvency in Plymouth county, before Welcome Young, Esq., a master in chancery, and it was admitted that he was insolvent at the time of the attachment.

The plaintiffs in this suit alleged, and offered evidence to prove, that the attachment and levy of execution were made for the purpose of giving Haynes a preference or priority over the other creditors in contravention of the amendment of the insolvent law, made in 1841.

The defendant contended that property transferred by due process of law did not come within the provisions of the insolvent law, or of any of the acts in addition thereto; and he also contended that the plaintiffs had not made out a case on the facts.

Shaw, C. J., in charging the jury, ruled, among other things, that if a person who was insolvent procured his estate to be attached or taken in execution, with intention to prefer a creditor, and it was so taken, within six months of his being declared an insolvent, then it might be recovered back by the assignees under the insolvent law, providing the creditor, when excepting such preference, had reasonable cause to believe the debtor insolvent.

The jury returned a verdict for the plaintiffs for $877.

# COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE AND REVIEW.

CONDITION OF THE MONEY-MARKET—BANK EXPANSIONS—BANK LOANS OF FIVE LEADING STATES—IMPORTS AT THE PORT OF NEW YORK, IN 1845–6—CUSTOM DUTIES AT BOSTON AND NEW YORK—SUDDEN DEMAND FOR EXCHANGE—INCREASED RATES OF EXCHANGE—ALARM OF THE BANKS IN CONSEQUENCE OF THE SUB-TREASURY LAW—SEMI-ANNUAL DIVIDENDS OF BOSTON BANKS—INCREASED PROFITS OF BANKS—MASSACHUSETTS BANKS—OHIO BANKS—EXTENSION OF BANKS IN ALL THE STATES—LOCATION OF THE SURPLUS MONEY OF THE UNITED STATES—THE SUB-TREASURY LAW, AND ITS EFFECTS ON COMMERCE—THE CURRENCY—THE WAREHOUSING SYSTEM—IMPORTANCE OF A BRANCH MINT IN NEW YORK, ETC.—CASH DUTIES—TREASURY ORDER REDUCING DUTIES ON BREAD-STUFFS IMPORTED INTO GREAT BRITAIN.

THE past month has, from various causes, presented a marked change in the state of money matters. The course of the foreign trade, influenced by a sudden rise in the value of money abroad, produced a kind of crisis at the departure of the packet of the 1st of April; and it was estimated that the remittances were larger, at that juncture, than perhaps ever before, at one time. It has been the case, during the past year, that a rapid and general expansion has taken place in the banking movement of all the states. A necessary consequence of such a movement is uniformly an advance in prices, and an increase of imports. This expansion is indicated in the following figures, taken from the official reports of the banks of five leading states, towards the commencement of each of the two years, 1845–6:—

BANK LOANS OF FIVE LEADING STATES.

| Years. | Massachusetts. | New York. | Pennsylvania. | Maryland. | Ohio. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1845,..... | $48,770,975 | $73,091,796 | $23,347,426 | $9,677,773 | $3,130,240 |
| 1846,..... | 52,648,729 | 74,780,435 | 27,102,507 | 20,143,299 | 7,791,789 |
| Incr.,... | $3,877,754 | $1,688,639 | $3,755,081 | $10,465,526 | $4,661,549 |

The increase is here general and large. The facilities afforded by those institutions

whose aggregate returns are embraced in the table, to the disposal of imported, as well as home-made goods, stimulated overtrading; by which we mean a larger amount of goods imported, and taken into the hands of jobbers and shop-keepers, than was sufficient for the actual consumption. The result of such overtrading is an increased stock in the hands of shop-keepers, and also an increase in the amount of their outstanding obligations; to meet which, the actual consumption of, and payment for the goods, in the products of industry, is necessary. The banking movement directly facilitates this operation, in a regular state of affairs. Commencing with the last fall, however, money began to be scarce in England—the railroad speculations, the war-rumors, and the failure of the harvest, all conspired to produce a stringency in money in the manufacturing districts. The full activity of banking machinery here had advanced prices to rates that would neutralize the prohibitive effect of the tariff, and it became possible to send, as formerly, large quantities of goods to this market, obtain advances from the large auctioneering houses, discount the paper so procured, and send the proceeds to England. The following table of imports at the port of New York will indicate the progress of this movement:—

IMPORTS AT THE PORT OF NEW YORK.

| | 1844-45. | 1845-46. | Increase. | Decrease. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1st 11 months,..... | $71,889,094 | $65,255,727 | ..... | $6,633,367 |
| December,..... | 3,037,371 | 4,076,672 | $1,039,301 | ..... |
| January and February, | 11,137,784 | 10,012,101 | ..... | 1,125,683 |
| March,..... | 6,242,453 | 9,812,494 | 3,570,041 | ..... |
| Total, 15 months, | $92,306,702 | $89,156,994 | ..... | ..... |

While money remained easy in England, the imports into the port of New York were rather less last year than otherwise; having declined, for the first eleven months of 1845, 9 per cent, as compared with the same period of the previous year. When, however, a pressure began to be felt abroad, the goods were sent over to realize; and, down to the 1st of April, the imports were very large; notwithstanding that a great reduction in duties was and is looked for. The imports at Boston were larger, as indicated in the duties collected, as follows:—

CUSTOMS DUTIES AT BOSTON AND NEW YORK, FROM JANUARY 1ST TO APRIL 1ST.

| | 1845. | 1846. | Increase. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Boston,..... | $946,668 | $1,406,047 | $459,379 |
| New York,..... | 4,636,862 | 5,360,835 | 723,973 |

This movement of imports, under such circumstances, caused an immense and sudden demand for exchange for the 1st of April; and the rate for bills jumped up from 8¼ to 10 per cent premium, with every prospect of a continued demand, for remittance. The large bill-houses made immediate preparation to ship specie largely, to draw against. The banks had, however, in the meantime, become alarmed at the prospect of the immediate action of the sub-treasury, exposing them to the double demand for specie, both foreign and internal, and they rigorously curtailed their accommodations, and the auctioneers ceased to advance on imported goods, by which means the demand for bills was so reduced as to cause the rate to fall back to 9¼, more particularly that later advices spoke of an easier state of the money-markets of both Paris and England. When this sudden demand for remittances sprung up, the supply of bills had been greatly diminished through failures of consignees of produce abroad, and the shortness of the cotton crop. Up to April 1st, the diminution of exports of cotton was equal to an amount of $12,000,000. Some considerable quantities of bills drawn against other produce had also been returned, in consequence of the failure of parties abroad, who had appropriated the proceeds of produce consigned to them to their own disastrous railroad speculations.

There has also been, in the New England States, an over-action in manufacturing industry, caused rather by anticipation of extensive sales, than any effective demand for the wares. The banking movement has expanded, to meet this speculative feeling. The results, thus far, on bank profits, are indicated in the following table of the semi-annual dividends declared by the Boston banks:—

| | 1843-44. | | 1844-45. | | 1845-46. | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Capital. | Dividends. | Capital. | Dividends. | Capital. | Dividends. |
| October,..... | $17,010,000 | $417,000 | $17,480,000 | $480,800 | $17,630,000 | $561,850 |
| April,..... | 17,480,000 | 426,300 | 17,480,000 | 550,250 | 18,180,000 | 593,000 |
| Tot. annual, | ..... | $843,300 | ..... | $1,031,050 | ..... | $1,154,850 |

The profits of these institutions have increased, it appears, 40 per cent in two years, and they are now in a position more expanded, by far, than when the suspension of 1837 overtook them. The following is a comparison:—

MASSACHUSETTS BANKS.

| | Loans. | Specie. | Deposits. | Circulation. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| May, 1837,..... | $55,878,956 | $1,422,440 | $8,188,680 | $8,986,497 |
| Nov., 1845,..... | 52,648,729 | 3,367,904 | 11,668,135 | 14,339,686 |
| Increase,..... | | $1,945,504 | $3,479,455 | $4,353,189 |
| Decrease,..... | $3,230,227 | | | |

The increase of specie is nearly as one to four of the increase of the deposits and circulation. In the state of Ohio, the increase of banking has been very great under the law of the last session. In January, 1845, there were eight banks in operation in that state. In 1846, there were thirty-one banks in operation, and they compared as follows:—

BANKS OF OHIO.

| | 1845. | 1846. | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 8 banks. | 8 old banks. | 23 new banks. | Total. | Increase. |
| Loans,..... | $3,141,281 | $4,924,469 | $3,267,320 | $7,791,789 | $4,650,508 |
| Specie,..... | 735,048 | 729,148 | 645,443 | 1,374,593 | 639,545 |
| Circulation,..... | 2,370,212 | 2,641,087 | 1,864,804 | 4,505,891 | 2,135,679 |
| Deposits,..... | 434,412 | 1,124,052 | 1,558,169 | 2,682,221 | 2,247,809 |

The machinery here exists for vast expansion, which must inevitably end in explosion. When we reflect that, with the heavy taxation in Ohio, the severe competition which her farmers have to undergo with other lake states *not taxed*, and that the operation of the banks is to run the state in debt for goods, until the paper structure is undermined, and insolvency overtakes the new-formed banks, we cannot but apprehend the same results that have followed similar causes in other states, viz., an impatience of taxation when the revulsion overtakes them.

The expansion is, as we have seen, not confined to Ohio; it is common to all the banks of all the states, and the institutions are jeopardized by that adverse state of the exchanges, which their own movements have mainly helped to produce. At this juncture, it is, no doubt, matter of alarm to contemplate the prompt enforcement of the specie clause of the sub-treasury law, which has passed the House of Representatives by so large a majority. The bill itself is very simple; it has no complicated provisions. Its chief feature is, that nothing but gold and silver shall be received in payment of the public dues, after July 30th, 1846, and that nothing but gold and silver shall be paid out after October 1st, 1846. There has been in the United States Treasury, during the last two years, a sum of money averaging over $10,000,000, an accumulation over the whole current expenditures of the government, and a payment of a portion of the public debt. This surplus was located nearly as follows:—

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| New England States,..... | $1,287,651 | New York,..... | $5,572,022 |
| Pennsylvania,..... | 849,706 | Washington,..... | 530,078 |
| U. S. Mints,..... | 910,000 | Other places,..... | 2,634,946 |
| Total deposits, April 1st, 1846,..... | | | $11,784,403 |

This money has been loaned to banks and brokers *without interest*, at the same time the United States have been paying 6 per cent for money borrowed. The circumstances of the import of foreign goods to which we have above alluded, have greatly assisted to swell this accumulation, and the money, in its turn, has been the means of facilitating the imports, until a foreign demand for specie has sprung up. The government now proposes to demand all its dues in specie of the banks, and pour it off into the channels of general business, through the treasury vaults. The law is briefly as follows:—The vaults of the treasury buildings are constituted the treasury of the United States. The treasurers of the mints at New Orleans and Philadelphia, together with the collectors of Boston, New York, Charleston, and St. Louis, are made "receivers-general" of the public money. To these are accountable all persons in the several districts respectively, who receive the public moneys. Each "receiver-general" receives all the money collected in his district, and deposits it in the appointed vault under his control. The money is then, at all times, subject to the draft and order of the Secretary of the Treasury, either for transfer from one depository to another, or in payment to the public creditors. This appears to be the whole machinery of the Independent Treasury law. The drafts drawn by the Secretary of the Treasury on the public funds, must be presented at the point on which they are drawn, within a reasonable time for their transmission, or the Secretary may, at his option, change the place of payment; as, for instance, if the creditor at Washington receives a bill on New York, it will be worth a premium as a remittance, and might float as a currency in the exchanges for a length of time. To prevent this, the law requires the draft to be presented and paid, within, say a week, or the Secretary may change the place of payment, make it St. Louis, or any other point at his pleasure. If the law demands specie for dues, and compelling specie to be paid out after 30th June, 1846, regardless of the existing surplus, the deposit banks would scarcely be able to meet the $11,788,000, which they hold, in specie. The law therefore provides that, until October, 1846, the disbursing officer may, when provided with drafts on the present depositories, draw those drafts, and pay out such funds as he receives for them. This allows three months for the expenditure of the present surplus; but it necessarily involves the accumulation in the government vaults, in specie, of all the customs duties for that three months, until the present surplus is expended. The quarter from June to July is usually that of the heaviest receipts. In that period of 1845, they were $8,861,992, and in the previous year, $10,873,768. This year they will probably be less in the same time, because the time for the reduction in duties will have been approached, and the large imports of the present spring may have so glutted the markets as to make goods plenty. At any rate, some $7,000,000 of specie must go into the treasury vaults, and remain idle for a length of time, unless the present surplus is disposed of before the law goes into operation. A proposition to effect this has been before Congress, with the view to appropriate the surplus to the payment of the government debt at its present value. This operation would, doubtless, relieve the market from many of the apprehensions under which it labors. The present value of the 6 per cent stock of the government, redeemable in 1862, having 16 years to run, interest paid semi-annually, to yield 6 per cent interest per annum, is 1 per cent premium; calculated to yield 5 per cent interest, it is worth 11½ per cent premium. If the sub-treasury law produces in its action that stringency in the money-market which is apprehended from it, this stock would be readily obtained at its value as a 6 per cent stock. It has been the misfortune of the recent system of the deposits of public money with banks, that it has imparted to stocks, more particularly to United States stocks, a fictitious value. That is

to say, in addition to their value as a safe investment of surplus capital to yield an income of 6 per cent per annum, they have become valuable as a means of borrowing. That is to say, the purchaser or holder of a United States 6 per cent stock, could obtain a loan of government money on it as security, *without* interest. Therefore that stock had a distinct, tangible and practical value above all other 6 per cent stocks, and well calculated to sustain its market price above most other 6 per cent securities. The law, as it passed the House of Representatives, is, however, clearly impracticable. It provides that, after June 30th, 1846, nothing but gold and silver shall be received, and after October 30th, nothing but gold and silver shall be paid out. The constitutional currency of the United States is, undoubtedly, gold and silver coin, and that alone is recognized as money. The constitution went also a step further, and forbid any of the states ever to recognize, legally, anything but gold and silver. So far, therefore, as strict constitutionality goes, the law simply adheres to that instrument. The constitution, however, when forbidding the states to legalize anything but gold and silver as money, gave to Congress the exclusive power of furnishing that gold and silver coin which was alone to compose the currency of the states. If Congress neglected to exercise the exclusive right thus enforced on it, and failed to furnish the gold and silver *money*, it was itself the cause of forcing paper upon the states and community. Of this neglect, Congress has really been guilty, and now, to turn round and declare that the government creditors shall have for their claims, not money, but gold bullion, is, to say the least, arbitrary. It has been urged by bank advocates on the one hand, that those institutions are necessary to *furnish* a currency, and on the other hand, many have contended that it is the duty of the government to *furnish* it. Both these positions are, we apprehend, gross fallacies. Money, the money of the world as well as of countries, consists exclusively of the precious metals. The prices of all commodities are determined by the quantity of gold or silver of a certain fineness or quality, which they will command in any country. In the commerce of nations, gold is as much purchased with commodities, as are commodities with gold. A barrel of flour in Liverpool, is worth 30s., or 185 grains of gold, 915 thousandths fine. The same barrel of flour, in New York, is worth $5, or 129 grains of gold, 900 thousandths fine. That is to say, there may be obtained in Liverpool 56 grains more gold for a barrel of flour, than in New York. This may arise as well from the scarcity of gold in New York, as from the scarcity of flour in Liverpool. To transport the flour to Liverpool and bring back the gold, would require that the ship-owner, merchant, and others, should have some grains of gold for their trouble. Possibly they would take 40 grains; so that he who gave 129 grains of gold for a barrel of flour in New York, would also disburse for freight, &c., 40 grains more, making 169 grains, and he would get 185 grains in Liverpool; he will, therefore, bring into the country 16 grains of gold more than was here before. Thus it is, that the precious metals, or the *raw material* for money, is *furnished*; it is, purely, an operation of commerce. Now money is simply the division of the metals into convenient pieces, and having a stamp upon them by which the receiver may know, at a glance, the precise quantity and quality contained in each. The government reserves to itself the exclusive right to do this, and it is very desirable that it should. It so happens, however, that every nation of the earth makes its pieces to contain different quantities and qualities of gold, and although they are perfectly well known to the people of each country, yet they are entirely unintelligible to the citizens of foreign countries. Most of the nations, therefore, do not recognize gold as money until it is actually money; that is to say, until the government stamp certifies that each piece contains the required quantity and quality. In the United States, the government does not require this; it allows all gold and silver to be a legal tender, no matter what shape it may be in. It makes the *metal* money, instead of coin, exclusively. It provides, indeed, a mint to coin the metal, but it requires the owner of the metals to bring them to the mint; and, as that is situated

in Philadelphia, at a distance from the place of ownership, it is little available. Now it is very evident that gold and silver bullion, or foreign coins, are no more *money* than watch-cases and ear-rings, because the public cannot ascertain the number and quality of the grains of gold they contain. Of the $7,000,000 of specie now in the New York banks, about $1,000,000 only, is *money*: that is, coins with which the people are acquainted. The balance is all sorts of foreign coins, to ascertain the value of which, requires a skilful assayer. If, therefore, the government demands, in July, specie exclusively, it can procure nothing but this *material* for money. This may answer for its receipts, but when it undertakes to pay it out again, for salaries, contracts, &c., at the rates fixed by law, it simply throws its creditors into the hands of brokers, who will *shave* them at their pleasure, as much as if that which they received from the government was *strange paper* instead of *strange gold*. From these circumstances, it is pretty obvious, we think, that before the government compels the exclusive use of gold and silver *money*, it would be well for it to do its own duty, and provide the money from the material furnished by commerce, according to the exclusive right to "coin money and regulate the value thereof," conferred upon it by the federal constitution. The location of a mint in New York, would go far to obviate this difficulty; and, with the growing trade of Boston, perhaps a branch there may become necessary. If the law, as it is, goes into operation, it may become necessary to transfer the specie collected here, to the mint at Philadelphia, for coinage, and again to this city for disbursement, until a mint can be established here. The establishment of a warehousing system will also become a necessary accompaniment of the sub-treasury law, with the enforcement of cash duties. To enforce the collection, in coin, of all duties on goods at the moment of import, must, necessarily, crush all carrying trade, as well as greatly interfere with the regular returns into the country, of the proceeds of produce sold abroad.

A treasury order has been issued, and transmitted to the customs authorities at the several ports, directing that buckwheat, Indian corn, and rice, may be liberated on payment of the reduced rates of duty proposed by Sir Robert Peel, and resolved on by the British House of Commons, the parties, however, being required to give bond to pay the old duty, provided the parliament finally reject the ministerial project. Without waiting for the consummation of the measure now before the House, therefore, the subjoined articles may be liberated at the rates of duty annexed, the importers merely giving the formal undertaking above specified:

| | £ | s. | d. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Buckwheat, the quarter, | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| Buckwheat meal, the cwt., | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| Maize or Indian corn, the quarter, | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| —— meal, the cwt., | 0 | 0 | 4½ |
| Rice, the cwt., | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| —— of and from any British possession, the cwt., | 0 | 0 | 6 |
| —— rough, and in the husk, the quarter, | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| —— of and from a British possession, the quarter, | 0 | 0 | 1 |

The import of corn into England, for the supply of whatever may be wanted to make up the deficit of the coming summer, must come from the United States, principally. The prices of grain in Europe are by no means such as to warrant the expectation that they will be able to compete with the abundance of the great west. It is to be hoped that the exports of farm produce will, to a considerable extent, compensate for the loss which will be sustained through diminished exports of cotton, at low prices.

# COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

## COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION OF THE UNITED STATES,

FOR THE YEAR ENDING JUNE 30, 1845.

We are indebted to the Hon. Charles S. Benton, member of Congress from New York, for an early copy of the letter of the Secretary of the Treasury, transmitting the annual report of Commerce and Navigation, for the year ending June 30th, 1845; and, in accordance with the plan we adopted in the early volumes of the Merchants' Magazine, we now proceed to place on record, a full and comprehensive view of the commerce and navigation of the United States, for that year. We have, on several former occasions, called the attention of the administration to the importance of a greater degree of promptness in the preparation and publication of these reports. The present report is dated November 29, 1845, and was communicated to both Houses of Congress on the 4th of December, 1845, five months after the close of the commercial year; four months more have elapsed since it was put into the hands of the printer to Congress; so that a space of nine calendar months have been consumed in the preparation and printing of this document. But this is an improvement on previous years. The report for the year ending June, 1844, occupied nearly a year in the preparation; and we were enabled only to give the results of that report in the number of this Magazine for June, 1845, just one year after its close. The custom-house returns should all be made to the Treasury Department within one month after the expiration of the commercial year, (30th of June,) so that they would be in the hands of the Register of the Treasury and his assistants on the 1st of August; which would give them four months to prepare the report, prior to the meeting of Congress. One or two months, with sufficient force, would afford ample time to perform that duty; but the better course would be, for Congress to pass a permanent law, authorizing the Secretary of the Treasury to prepare and print a specified number of the report annually, so that it could be distributed among the members at the opening of Congress, in December of each year. There can be no objection to this method, as no alteration is, or can be made in the report by the action of Congress, and about the same number are ordered to be printed every year.

### DOMESTIC EXPORTS OF THE UNITED STATES.

*Summary statement of the value of the Exports of the growth, produce, and manufacture of the United States, during the year commencing on the 1st day of July, 1844, and ending on the 30th day of June, 1845.*

| | |
|---|---|
| **The Sea.** | |
| Fisheries— | |
| Dried fish, or cod fisheries, | $803,353 |
| Pickled fish, or river fisheries, (herring, salmon, shad, mackerel,) | 208,654 |
| Whale and other fish oil, | 1,520,363 |
| Spermaceti oil, | 975,195 |
| Whalebone, | 762,642 |
| Spermaceti candles, | 236,917 |
| | $4,507,124 |
| **The Forest.** | |
| Skins and furs, | $1,248,355 |
| Ginseng, | 177,146 |
| Product of wood— | |
| Staves, shingles, boards, hewn timber, | 1,953,222 |
| Other lumber, | $369,505 |
| Masts and spars, | 28,692 |
| Oak bark, and other dye, | 70,616 |
| All manufac. of wood, | 677,420 |
| Naval stores, tar, pitch, rosin, and turpentine, | 814,969 |
| Ashes, pot and pearl, | 1,210,496 |
| | $6,550,421 |
| **Agriculture.** | |
| Product of animals— | |
| Beef, tallow, hides, horned cattle, | $1,926,809 |
| Butter and cheese, | 878,865 |
| Pork, (pickled) bacon, lard and live hogs, | 2,991,984 |
| Horses and mules, | 385,488 |
| Sheep, | 23,948 |

DOMESTIC EXPORTS OF THE UNITED STATES—CONTINUED.

| | |
|---|---|
| Vegetable food— | |
| Wheat, | $336,779 |
| Flour, | 5,398,593 |
| Indian corn, | 411,741 |
| Indian meal, | 641,552 |
| Rye meal, | 112,908 |
| Rye, oats, and other small grain and pulse, | 177,953 |
| Biscuit, or ship-bread, | 366,294 |
| Potatoes, | 122,926 |
| Apples, | 81,306 |
| Rice, | 2,160,456 |
| Tobacco, | 7,469,819 |
| Cotton, | 51,739,643 |
| All other agric. products— | |
| Flaxseed, | 81,978 |
| Hops, | 90,341 |
| Brown sugar, | 11,107 |
| Indigo, | 70 |
| | $75,409,860 |
| MANUFACTURES. | |
| Soap, and tallow candles, | $623,946 |
| Leather, boots and shoes, | 328,091 |
| Household furniture, | 277,488 |
| Coaches and other carriages, | 55,821 |
| Hats, | 70,597 |
| Saddlery, | 20,847 |
| Wax, | 234,794 |
| Spirits from grain, | 75,108 |
| Beer, ale, porter, and cider, | 69,582 |
| Snuff and tobacco, | 538,498 |
| Linseed oil and sp. turp., | 92,614 |
| Cordage, | 55,016 |
| Iron—pig, bar, and nails, | 77,669 |
| castings, | 118,248 |
| all manufactures of, | 649,100 |
| Spirits from molasses, | 216,118 |
| Sugar, refined, | 164,662 |
| Chocolate, | 1,461 |
| Gunpowder, | 122,599 |
| Copper and brass, | 94,736 |
| Medicinal drugs, | 212,837 |
| Cotton piece goods— | |
| Printed and colored, | $516,943 |
| White, | 2,343,104 |
| Nankeen, | 1,174 038 |
| Twist, yarn, and thread, | 14,379 |
| All other manufac. of, | 280,164 |
| Flax and hemp—bags, and all manufactures of, | 14,762 |
| Wearing apparel, | 59,653 |
| Combs and buttons, | 23,794 |
| Brushes, | 2,206 |
| Billiard-tables and apparatus, | 1,551 |
| Umbrellas and parasols, | 2,583 |
| Leather and morocco skins, not sold per pound, | 16,363 |
| Fire-engines & apparatus, | 12,660 |
| Printing-presses and type, | 26,774 |
| Musical instruments, | 18,309 |
| Books and maps, | 43,298 |
| Paper and stationery, | 106,190 |
| Paints and varnish, | 50,165 |
| Vinegar, | 14,375 |
| Earthen and stone ware, | 7,393 |
| Manuf. of glass, | 98,760 |
| " tin, | 10,114 |
| " pewter and lead, | 14,404 |
| " marble and stone, | 17,626 |
| " gold and silver, & gold-leaf, | 3,229 |
| Gold and silver coin, | 844,446 |
| Artificial flowers & jewelry, | 10,435 |
| Molasses, | 20,771 |
| Trunks, | 3,336 |
| Brick and lime, | 8,701 |
| Domestic salt, | 45,151 |
| Lead, | 342,646 |
| Articles not enumerated— | |
| Manufactured, | 1,269,338 |
| Other articles, | 1,315,578 |
| | $12,832,371 |
| Grand total, | $99,299,776 |

RECAPITULATION.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| The Sea, | $4,507,124 | Tobacco, | $7,469,816 |
| The Forest, | 6,550,421 | Cotton, | 51,739,643 |
| Agriculture, | 6,206,394 | Other agricul. products, | 183,496 |
| Vegetable food, | 9,810,508 | Manufactures, | 12,832,371 |

DOMESTIC EXPORTS OF THE U. STATES TO EACH COUNTRY, IN 1844–45.

| | ARTICLES NOT ENUMERATED. | | TOTAL VALUE OF MERCHANDISE. | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Whither exported. | Manuf'd. | Other. | In American vessels. | In Foreign vessels. | To each country. |
| Russia, | $917 | ..... | $508,246 | $28,599 | $536,845 |
| Prussia, | 533 | $901 | 78,097 | 423,910 | 502,007 |
| Sweden and Norway, | ..... | ..... | 30,600 | 219,967 | 250,567 |
| Swedish West Indies, | 2,246 | 586 | 88,886 | ..... | 88,886 |
| Denmark, | ..... | ..... | 31,835 | 92,831 | 124,666 |
| Danish West Indies, | 8,100 | 9,507 | 809,315 | 24,188 | 833,503 |
| Hanse Towns, | 11,240 | 23,117 | 1,145,282 | 2,961,645 | 4,106,927 |
| Holland, | 2,746 | 1,278 | 1,880,121 | 873,659 | 2,753,780 |
| Dutch East Indies, | 4,490 | 93 | 129,151 | ..... | 129,151 |

DOMESTIC EXPORTS OF U. STATES TO EACH COUNTRY, ETC.—CONTINUED.

| Whither exported. | ARTICLES NOT ENUMERATED. Manuf'd. | Other. | TOTAL VALUE OF MERCHANDISE. In American vessels. | In Foreign vessels. | To each country. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Dutch West Indies, | $1,156 | $1,953 | $304,080 | ..... | $304,080 |
| Dutch Guiana, | 412 | 290 | 47,737 | ..... | 47,737 |
| Belgium, | 8,716 | 8,678 | 1,259,456 | 236,296 | 1,495,754 |
| England, | 212,185 | 504,423 | 29,582,384 | 11,936,550 | 41,518,934 |
| Scotland, | 4,456 | 54,080 | 1,281,309 | 1,330,565 | 2,611,874 |
| Ireland, | ..... | 916 | 90,886 | 12,585 | 103,471 |
| Gibraltar, | 285 | 408 | 388,051 | 38,056 | 426,107 |
| Malta, | ..... | ..... | 12,909 | ..... | 12,909 |
| British East Indies, | 1,915 | 28,061 | 297,331 | ..... | 297,331 |
| Cape of Good Hope, | 667 | 45 | 33,743 | ..... | 33,743 |
| Mauritius, | ..... | ..... | ..... | 12,935 | 12,935 |
| Australia, | 1,580 | ..... | 69,521 | ..... | 69,521 |
| Honduras, | 5,743 | 4,259 | 169,748 | 18,746 | 188,494 |
| British Guiana, | 3,815 | 10,204 | 333,341 | 83,526 | 416,867 |
| British West Indies, | 36,340 | 78,521 | 3,572,211 | 515,289 | 4,087,500 |
| British Amer. colonies, | 684,378 | 307,457 | 2,295,096 | 2,549,870 | 4,844,966 |
| France on the Atlantic, | 11,998 | 54,553 | 10,651,028 | 699,404 | 11,350,432 |
| France on the Medit., | 6,535 | 1,630 | 979,739 | ..... | 979,739 |
| French West Indies, | 2,137 | 9,303 | 512,341 | 30,114 | 542,455 |
| French Guiana, | 144 | 1,025 | 57,052 | ..... | 57,052 |
| French African ports, | ..... | ..... | ..... | 5,508 | 5,508 |
| Bourbon, | ..... | 985 | 16,483 | ..... | 16,483 |
| Spain on the Atlantic, | ..... | ..... | 264,388 | 6,845 | 271,233 |
| Spain on Mediterranean, | ..... | ..... | 25,160 | 30,540 | 55,700 |
| Teneriffe, and other Canaries, | 60 | ..... | 4,346 | 1,549 | 5,895 |
| Manilla, and Philippine islands, | 838 | ..... | 119,263 | ..... | 119,263 |
| Cuba, | 36,585 | 59,629 | 5,537,941 | 665,867 | 6,203,808 |
| Other Sp. W. Indies, | 11,849 | 10,913 | 654,271 | 33,878 | 688,149 |
| Portugal, | ..... | 105 | 104,597 | 19,753 | 124,350 |
| Madeira, | 223 | 168 | 53,554 | 5,758 | 59,312 |
| Fayal, and other Azores, | ..... | ..... | 2,831 | ..... | 2,831 |
| Cape de Verd islands, | 297 | 311 | 50,085 | 514 | 50,599 |
| Italy, | 1,951 | 965 | 485,770 | 101,799 | 587,569 |
| Sicily, | ..... | ..... | 4,113 | 66,512 | 70,625 |
| Sardinia, | ..... | 41 | 129,178 | 33,649 | 162,827 |
| Trieste, and other Austrian ports, | 512 | 1,596 | 1,026,338 | 406,765 | 1,433,103 |
| Turkey, Levant, &c., | ..... | 3,381 | 115,553 | ..... | 115,553 |
| Hayti, | 4,399 | 8,166 | 1,321,376 | 6,515 | 1,327,891 |
| Texas, | 2,934 | 6,091 | 173,631 | 37,105 | 210,736 |
| Mexico, | 10,771 | 19,616 | 705,871 | 78,283 | 784,154 |
| Cen. Rep. of America, | 751 | 1,025 | 36,087 | 5,461 | 41,548 |
| New Grenada, | 766 | 471 | 48,717 | ..... | 48,717 |
| Venezuela, | 8,879 | 5,737 | 499,676 | 35,869 | 535,545 |
| Brazil, | 53,599 | 31,800 | 2,359,214 | 54,353 | 2,413,567 |
| Cisplatine Republic, | 1,819 | 503 | 115,005 | 25,981 | 140,986 |
| Argentine Republic, | 13,215 | 5,850 | 320,099 | 22,476 | 342,575 |
| Chili, | 15,062 | 14,395 | 1,247,360 | ..... | 1,247,360 |
| Peru, | 1,634 | 435 | 33,424 | ..... | 33,424 |
| China, | 12,616 | 9,874 | 2,079,341 | ..... | 2,079,341 |
| West Indies, generally, | 36 | 1,499 | 182,598 | ..... | 182,598 |
| S. America, generally, | 1,044 | 13 | 75,329 | ..... | 75,329 |
| Europe, generally, | ..... | ..... | ..... | 21,573 | 21,573 |
| Asia, generally, | 1,735 | ..... | 171,803 | ..... | 171,803 |
| Africa, generally, | 4,846 | 2,244 | 464,198 | 61,365 | 525,563 |
| S. Seas and Pac. ocean, | 70,253 | 28,477 | 416,025 | ..... | 416,025 |
| Total, | $1,269,338 | $1,315,578 | $75,483,123 | $23,816,653 | $99,299,776 |

FOREIGN EXPORTS OF THE UNITED STATES, IN 1844–45.

| Whither exported. | Free of duty. *Dolls.* | Paying ad val. dut. *Dolls.* | Paying spec. duties. *Dolls.* | Total. *Dolls.* | To each power. *Dolls.* |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Russia, | 50,318 | 12,796 | 127,378 | 190,492 | 190,492 |
| Prussia, | 53,038 | 2,949 | 9,127 | 65,114 | 65,114 |
| Sweden and Norway, | 16,545 | 2,645 | 3,571 | 22,761 | 24,214 |
| Swedish West Indies, | ..... | ..... | 1,453 | 1,453 | |
| Denmark, | 11,516 | ..... | 8,985 | 20,501 | 181,427 |
| Danish West Indies, | 75,866 | 38,815 | 46,245 | 160,926 | |
| Hanse Towns, | 249,122 | 166,619 | 422,352 | 838,093 | 838,093 |
| Holland, | 155,518 | 59,168 | 53,581 | 268,267 | 375,854 |
| Dutch East Indies, | 70,557 | 1,150 | 300 | 72,007 | |
| Dutch West Indies, | 24,163 | 2,892 | 6,653 | 33,708 | |
| Dutch Guiana, | ..... | 630 | 1,242 | 1,872 | |
| Belgium, | 152,402 | 186,691 | 16,226 | 355,319 | 355,319 |
| England, | 3,699,794 | 329,694 | 737,756 | 4,767,244 | 6,419,863 |
| Scotland, | 14,297 | 8,633 | 32,006 | 54,936 | |
| Gibraltar, | 84,106 | 13,647 | 65,811 | 163,564 | |
| British East Indies, | 89,597 | 31,595 | 12,875 | 134,067 | |
| Australia, &c., | ..... | ..... | 790 | 790 | |
| British Honduras, | 6,738 | 26,473 | 18,210 | 51,421 | |
| British Guiana, | ..... | ..... | 1,881 | 1,881 | |
| British West Indies, | 12,757 | 5,886 | 18,077 | 36,720 | |
| British American colonies, | 996,726 | 99,091 | 113,443 | 1,209,260 | |
| France on the Atlantic, | 2,799,090 | 110,121 | 63,042 | 2,972,253 | 3,192,325 |
| France on Mediterranean, | 156,721 | 18,270 | 22,989 | 197,980 | |
| French West Indies, | 10,689 | 159 | 10,800 | 21,648 | |
| French Guiana, | ..... | ..... | 444 | 444 | |
| Spain on the Atlantic, | ..... | 350 | 200 | 550 | 446,394 |
| Spain on Mediterranean, | 28,808 | ..... | ..... | 28,808 | |
| Manilla, and Phil. islands, | 32,702 | 21 | 2,592 | 35,315 | |
| Cuba, | 46,287 | 117,121 | 197,538 | 360,946 | |
| Other Sp. West Indies, | 9,372 | 3,221 | 8,182 | 20,775 | |
| Portugal, | 3,559 | 1,860 | ..... | 5,419 | 16,068 |
| Madeira, | 325 | ..... | 1,459 | 1,784 | |
| Fayal, and other Azores, | 51 | ..... | ..... | 51 | |
| Cape de Verda, | 1,181 | 303 | 1,350 | 2,834 | |
| Italy, | 80,725 | 90,646 | 58,981 | 230,352 | 230,352 |
| Sicily, | 25,888 | 127,127 | 181,652 | 334,667 | 334,667 |
| Sardinia, | 22,791 | ..... | 10,179 | 32,970 | 32,970 |
| Trieste, &c., | 175,379 | 22,559 | 170,837 | 368,775 | 368,775 |
| Turkey, Levant, &c., | 34,655 | 5,925 | 8,966 | 49,546 | 49,546 |
| Hayti, | 18,316 | 32,376 | 27,157 | 77,849 | 77,849 |
| Texas, | 20,090 | 75,367 | 57,599 | 153,056 | 153,056 |
| Mexico, | 24,268 | 189,836 | 154,073 | 368,177 | 368,177 |
| Cen. Rep. of America, | 1,585 | 16,772 | 7,744 | 26,101 | 26,101 |
| New Grenada, | 2,433 | 12,488 | 15,339 | 30,260 | 30,260 |
| Venezuela, | 163,036 | 11,224 | 15,325 | 189,585 | 189,585 |
| Brazil, | 273,500 | 57,588 | 93,295 | 424,383 | 424,383 |
| Cisplatine Republic, | 7,379 | ..... | 8,771 | 16,150 | 16,150 |
| Argentine Republic, | 113,125 | 17,876 | 29,430 | 160,431 | 160,431 |
| Chili, | 31,071 | 148,046 | 121,714 | 300,831 | 300,831 |
| China, | 167,887 | 7,901 | 20,866 | 196,654 | 196,654 |
| West Indies, generally, | ..... | ..... | 378 | 378 | 378 |
| S. America, generally, | ..... | 4,332 | 5,578 | 9,910 | 9,910 |
| Asia, generally, | 107,057 | 3,581 | 30,307 | 140,945 | 140,945 |
| Africa, generally, | 44,112 | 16,938 | 18,493 | 79,543 | 79,543 |
| South Seas and Pac. ocean, | 9,957 | 25,910 | 21,197 | 57,064 | 57,064 |
| Total, | 10,175,099 | 2,107,292 | 3,064,439 | 15,346,830 | 15,346,830 |
| Entitled to drawback, | ..... | 1,829,212 | 2,853,252 | 4,682,464 | |
| Not entitled to drawback, | 10,175,099 | 278,080 | 211,187 | 10,664,366 | |

IMPORTS OF THE UNITED STATES, IN 1844–45.

| Whence imported. | Free of duty. | Paying ad val. dut. | Paying spec. dut. | Total. | From each power. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Russia, | $31,313 | $560,041 | $900,908 | $1,491,262 | $1,492,262 |
| Prussia, | ..... | 21,500 | 9,582 | 31,082 | 31,082 |
| Sweden and Norway, | 138 | 1,098 | 626,702 | 627,938 | 640,057 |
| Swedish West Indies, | 8,813 | 4 | 3,302 | 12,119 | |
| Denmark, | ..... | 1,705 | 20,724 | 22,429 | 783,238 |
| Danish West Indies, | 49,286 | 57,412 | 654,111 | 760,809 | |
| Hanse Towns, | 164,682 | 2,473,366 | 274,489 | 2,912,537 | 2,912,537 |
| Holland, | 220,358 | 185,080 | 548,906 | 954,344 | 1,897,623 |
| Dutch East Indies, | 339,887 | 149,012 | 49,709 | 538,608 | |
| Dutch West Indies, | 72,884 | 179,189 | 111,251 | 363,324 | |
| Dutch Guiana, | ..... | ..... | 41,347 | 41,347 | |
| Belgium, | 10,317 | 646,696 | 52,549 | 709,562 | 709,562 |
| England, | 1,621,801 | 35,835,226 | 7,230,832 | 44,687,859 | 49,903,725 |
| Scotland, | 4,423 | 473,694 | 230,071 | 708,187 | |
| Ireland, | 109 | 59,871 | 44,877 | 104,857 | |
| Gibraltar, | 12,307 | 62,239 | 17,572 | 92,118 | |
| Malta, | 1,026 | 3,374 | 17,911 | 22,311 | |
| British East Indies, | 433,367 | 456,963 | 386,204 | 1,276,534 | |
| Cape of Good Hope, | 4,783 | 21,656 | ..... | 26,439 | |
| British Honduras, | 144,508 | 36,442 | 23,868 | 204,818 | |
| British Guiana, | 7,422 | 7 | 528 | 7,957 | |
| British West Indies, | 369,719 | 47,032 | 335,829 | 752,580 | |
| British American colonies, | 1,139,678 | 330,510 | 549,877 | 2,020,065 | |
| France on the Atlantic, | 241,780 | 10,337,788 | 9,601,682 | 20,181,250 | 22,069,914 |
| France on the Mediter., | 546,374 | 523,997 | 343,804 | 1,414,175 | |
| French West Indies, | 217,469 | 9,892 | 187,671 | 415,032 | |
| French Guiana, | 5,710 | 19,468 | 34,128 | 59,306 | |
| Miquelon, and Fr. fisheries, | ..... | 118 | 33 | 151 | |
| Spain on the Atlantic, | 2,622 | 55,445 | 59,091 | 117,158 | 10,590,544 |
| Spain on the Mediterranean, | 112,715 | 77,802 | 764,111 | 954,628 | |
| Teneriffe and other Canaries, | 25,340 | 19,081 | 10,611 | 55,032 | |
| Manilla, and Philip. islands, | 71,904 | 91,085 | 470,070 | 633,059 | |
| Cuba, | 812,113 | 380,858 | 5,611,443 | 6,804,414 | |
| Other Spanish West Indies, | 90,224 | 22,647 | 1,913,382 | 2,026,253 | |
| Portugal, | 13,722 | 3,267 | 279,919 | 296,908 | 501,734 |
| Madeira, | 128 | 235 | 168,311 | 168,674 | |
| Fayal, | 4,140 | 1,880 | 22,553 | 28,573 | |
| Cape de Verds, | 86 | 6,845 | 648 | 7,579 | |
| Italy, | 134,305 | 679,944 | 487,328 | 1,301,577 | 1,301,577 |
| Sicily, | 104,961 | 300,497 | 124,035 | 529,493 | 529,493 |
| Sardinia, | 1,200 | 18,653 | 6 | 19,859 | 19,859 |
| Trieste, | 25,418 | 90,240 | 205,892 | 321,550 | 321,550 |
| Turkey, | 77,548 | 535,855 | 168,114 | 781,517 | 781,517 |
| Hayti, | 1,125,970 | 235,523 | 24,874 | 1,386,367 | 1,386,367 |
| Texas, | 47,597 | 45,573 | 662,154 | 755,324 | 755,324 |
| Mexico, | 1,203,923 | 422,640 | 76,373 | 1,702,936 | 1,702,936 |
| Cen. Rep. of America, | 30,135 | 27,897 | 7,237 | 65,269 | 65,269 |
| New Grenada, | 85,114 | 83,827 | 2,980 | 171,921 | 171,921 |
| Venezuela, | 670,337 | 451,611 | 146,327 | 1,268,275 | 1,268,275 |
| Brazil, | 4,519,000 | 1,233,219 | 332,380 | 6,084,599 | 6,084,599 |
| Cisplatine Republic, | ..... | 20,573 | ..... | 20,573 | 20,573 |
| Argentine Republic, | 941 | 1,747,181 | 2,576 | 1,750,698 | 1,750,698 |
| Chili, | 941,329 | 181,807 | 554 | 1,123,690 | 1,123,690 |
| Peru, | 199,181 | 117,316 | 19,615 | 336,112 | 336,112 |
| China, | 5,782,295 | 476,970 | 1,026,649 | 7,285,914 | 7,285,914 |
| Asia, generally, | 12,186 | 74,492 | 19,432 | 106,110 | 106,110 |
| Africa, generally, | 270,375 | 292,233 | 9,518 | 572,126 | 572,126 |
| South Seas and Pac. ocean, | 133,603 | 2,750 | 212 | 136,565 | 136,565 |
| Northwest coast of America, | 245 | ..... | ..... | 245 | 245 |
| Sandwich islands, | 1,030 | 536 | ..... | 1,566 | 1,566 |
| Total, | 22,147,840 | 60,191,862 | 34,914,862 | 117,254,564 | 117,254,564 |

## EXPORTS AND IMPORTS OF EACH STATE AND TERRITORY OF THE UNITED STATES, IN 1845.

*Statement of the Commerce of each State, &c., from the 1st of July, 1844, to the 30th of June, 1845.*

| States. | VALUE OF EXPORTS. | | | | | | | VALUE OF IMPORTS. | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | DOMESTIC PRODUCE. | | | FOREIGN PRODUCE. | | | Total of American and Foreign produce. | In American vessels. | In Foreign vessels. | Total. |
| | In American vessels. | In Foreign vessels. | Total. | In American vessels. | In Foreign vessels. | Total. | | | | |
| Maine, | $1,034,306 | $133,334 | $1,167,640 | $80,415 | $7,050 | $87,465 | $1,255,105 | $694,748 | $160,897 | $855,645 |
| N. Hampshire, | 1,469 | 905 | 2,374 | ..... | 10 | 10 | 2,384 | 18,919 | 3,770 | 22,689 |
| Vermont, | 213,976 | ..... | 213,976 | 328,631 | ..... | 328,631 | 542,607 | 81,997 | ..... | 81,997 |
| Massachusetts, | 6,918,733 | 837,663 | 7,756,396 | 1,871,110 | 723,524 | 2,594,634 | 10,351,030 | 18,150,295 | 4,630,729 | 22,781,024 |
| Rhode Island, | 190,141 | ..... | 190,141 | 891 | ..... | 891 | 191,032 | 273,380 | 950 | 274,330 |
| Connecticut, | 913,775 | 47,035 | 960,810 | 8,245 | ..... | 8,245 | 969,055 | 358,421 | 13,654 | 372,075 |
| New York, | 20,837,757 | 5,092,147 | 25,929,904 | 7,907,018 | 2,338,376 | 10,245,394 | 36,175,298 | 63,460,879 | 7,448,206 | 70,909,085 |
| New Jersey, | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | 177 | 652 | 829 |
| Pennsylvania, | 2,879,169 | 250,509 | 3,129,678 | 392,545 | 52,140 | 444,685 | 3,574,363 | 7,500,165 | 659,062 | 8,159,227 |
| Delaware, | 135,048 | 3,147 | 138,195 | ..... | ..... | ..... | 138,195 | 2,274 | ..... | 2,274 |
| Maryland, | 3,884,506 | 1,061,731 | 4,946,237 | 221,324 | 54,416 | 275,740 | 5,221,977 | 3,468,217 | 273,587 | 3,741,804 |
| Dis. of Col. | 418,902 | 90,527 | 509,429 | ..... | 735 | 735 | 510,164 | 61,586 | 8,943 | 70,529 |
| Virginia, | 1,903,018 | 198,027 | 2,101,045 | 3,536 | ..... | 3,536 | 2,104,581 | 261,501 | 6,157 | 267,658 |
| N. Carolina, | 339,763 | 40,197 | 379,960 | ..... | ..... | ..... | 379,960 | 221,037 | 9,433 | 230,470 |
| S. Carolina, | 6,669,848 | 2,184,922 | 8,884,770 | 585 | 5,593 | 5,878 | 8,890,648 | 940,815 | 202,343 | 1,143,158 |
| Georgia, | 2,723,983 | 1,833,452 | 4,557,435 | ..... | ..... | ..... | 4,557,435 | 150,312 | 55,989 | 206,301 |
| Alabama, | 6,615,568 | 3,899,706 | 10,515,274 | ..... | 22,954 | 22,954 | 10,538,228 | 185,177 | 288,314 | 473,491 |
| Louisiana, | 18,267,813 | 7,573,498 | 25,841,311 | 642,365 | 673,789 | 1,316,154 | 27,157,465 | 6,351,024 | 1,003,373 | 7,354,397 |
| Mississippi, | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | 738 | ..... | 738 |
| Tennessee, | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | 6,929 | ..... | 6,929 |
| Missouri, | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | 54,429 | ..... | 54,429 |
| Ohio, | 64,079 | 257,035 | 321,114 | ..... | ..... | ..... | 321,114 | 71,730 | 6,466 | 78,196 |
| Kentucky, | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | 17,469 | ..... | 17,469 |
| Michigan, | 251,220 | ..... | 251,220 | ..... | ..... | ..... | 251,220 | 41,952 | ..... | 41,952 |
| Florida, | 1,190,049 | 312,818 | 1,502,867 | 2,954 | 8,924 | 11,878 | 1,514,475 | 64,310 | 43,558 | 107,868 |
| Total, | $75,483,123 | $23,816,653 | $99,209,776 | $11,459,319 | $3,887,511 | $15,346,830 | $114,646,606 | 102,498,481 | $14,816,083 | $117,254,564 |

## VALUE OF THE IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF THE UNITED STATES, IN 1845.

*Statistical view of the Commerce of the United States, exhibiting the value of exports to, and imports from, each foreign country, during the year ending on the 30th of June, 1845.*

| Countries. | VALUE OF EXPORTS. Dom. produce. | For. produce. | Total. | VAL. OF IMP. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Russia, | $536,845 | $190,492 | $727,337 | $1,492,262 |
| Prussia, | 502,007 | 65,114 | 567,121 | 31,082 |
| Sweden and Norway, | 250,567 | 22,761 | 273,328 | 627,938 |
| Swedish West Indies, | 88,886 | 1,453 | 90,339 | 12,119 |
| Denmark, | 124,666 | 20,501 | 145,167 | 22,429 |
| Danish West Indies, | 833,503 | 160,926 | 994,429 | 760,809 |
| Hanse Towns, | 4,106,927 | 838,093 | 4,945,020 | 2,912,537 |
| Holland, | 2,753,780 | 268,267 | 3,022,047 | 954,344 |
| Dutch East Indies, | 129,151 | 72,007 | 201,158 | 538,608 |
| Dutch West Indies, | 304,080 | 33,708 | 337,788 | 363,324 |
| Dutch Guiana, | 47,737 | 1,872 | 49,609 | 41,347 |
| Belgium, | 1,495,754 | 355,319 | 1,851,073 | 709,562 |
| England, | 41,518,934 | 4,767,244 | 46,286,178 | 44,687,859 |
| Scotland, | 2,611,874 | 54,936 | 2,666,810 | 708,187 |
| Ireland, | 103,471 | ..... | 103,471 | 104,857 |
| Gibraltar, | 426,107 | 163,564 | 589,671 | 92,118 |
| Malta, | 12,909 | ..... | 12,909 | 22,311 |
| British East Indies, | 297,331 | 134,067 | 431,398 | 1,276,534 |
| Australia, | 69,521 | 790 | 70,311 | ..... |
| Cape of Good Hope, | 33,743 | ..... | 33,743 | 26,439 |
| Mauritius, | 12,935 | ..... | 12,935 | ..... |
| Honduras, | 188,494 | 51,421 | 239,915 | 204,818 |
| British Guiana, | 416,867 | 1,881 | 418,748 | 7,957 |
| British West Indies, | 4,087,500 | 36,720 | 4,124,220 | 752,580 |
| British N. American colonies, | 4,844,966 | 1,209,260 | 6,054,226 | 2,020,065 |
| France on the Atlantic, | 11,350,432 | 2,972,253 | 14,322,685 | 20,181,250 |
| France on the Mediterranean, | 979,739 | 197,980 | 1,177,719 | 1,414,175 |
| French West Indies, | 542,455 | 21,648 | 564,103 | 415,032 |
| Miquelon, and Fr. fisheries, | ..... | ..... | ..... | 151 |
| French Guiana, | 57,052 | 444 | 57,496 | 59,306 |
| French African ports, | 5,508 | ..... | 5,508 | ..... |
| Bourbon, | 16,483 | ..... | 16,483 | ..... |
| Spain on the Atlantic, | 271,233 | 550 | 271,783 | 117,158 |
| Spain on the Mediterranean, | 55,700 | 28,808 | 84,508 | 954,628 |
| Teneriffe, and other Canaries, | 5,895 | ..... | 5,895 | 55,032 |
| Manilla, and Philippine isles, | 119,263 | 35,315 | 154,578 | 633,059 |
| Cuba, | 6,203,808 | 360,946 | 6,564,754 | 6,804,414 |
| Other Sp. W. Indies, | 688,149 | 20,775 | 708,924 | 2,026,253 |
| Portugal, | 124,350 | 5,419 | 129,769 | 296,908 |
| Madeira, | 59,312 | 1,784 | 61,096 | 168,674 |
| Fayal, and other Azores, | 2,831 | 51 | 2,882 | 28,573 |
| Cape de Verd islands, | 50,599 | 2,834 | 53,433 | 7,759 |
| Italy, | 587,569 | 230,352 | 817,921 | 1,301,577 |
| Sicily, | 70,625 | 334,667 | 405,292 | 529,493 |
| Sardinia, | 162,827 | 32,970 | 195,797 | 19,859 |
| Trieste, and oth. Aus. ports, | 1,433,103 | 368,775 | 1,801,878 | 321,550 |
| Ionian Republic, | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... |
| Turkey, Levant, and Egypt, | 115,553 | 49,546 | 165,099 | 781,517 |
| Hayti, | 1,327,891 | 77,849 | 1,405,740 | 1,386,367 |
| China, | 2,079,341 | 196,654 | 2,275,995 | 7,285,914 |
| Texas, | 210,736 | 153,056 | 363,792 | 755,324 |
| Mexico, | 784,154 | 368,177 | 1,152,331 | 1,702,936 |
| Central America, | 41,548 | 26,101 | 67,649 | 65,269 |
| New Grenada, | 48,717 | 30,260 | 78,977 | 171,921 |
| Venezuela, | 535,545 | 189,585 | 725,130 | 1,268,275 |
| Brazil, | 2,413,567 | 424,383 | 2,837,950 | 6,084,599 |
| Argentine Republic, | 342,575 | 160,431 | 503,006 | 1,750,698 |
| Cisplatine Republic, | 140,986 | 16,150 | 157,136 | 20,573 |

VALUE OF IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF U. STATES, IN 1845—CONTINUED.

| Countries. | VALUE OF EXPORTS. Dom. produce. | For. produce. | Total. | VAL. OF IMP. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Chili, | $1,247,360 | $300,831 | $1,548,191 | $1,123,690 |
| Peru, | 33,424 | ..... | 33,424 | 336,112 |
| South America, generally, | 75,329 | 9,910 | 85,239 | ..... |
| Asia, generally, | 171,803 | 140,945 | 312,748 | 106,110 |
| Africa, generally, | 525,563 | 79,543 | 605,106 | 572,126 |
| Europe, generally, | 21,573 | ..... | 21,573 | ..... |
| West Indies, generally, | 182,598 | 378 | 182,976 | ..... |
| East Indies, generally, | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... |
| South Seas and Pacific ocean, | 416,025 | 57,064 | 473,089 | 136,565 |
| Northwest coast of America, | ..... | ..... | ..... | 245 |
| Sandwich islands, | ..... | ..... | ..... | 1,566 |
| Uncertain places, | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... |
| Total, | $99,299,776 | $15,346,830 | $114,646,606 | $117,254,564 |

NAVIGATION OF THE UNITED STATES, IN 1845.

*Tonnage of American and Foreign vessels arriving from, and departing to, each foreign country, during the year ending on the 30th of June, 1845.*

| Countries. | AMERICAN TONNAGE. Ent'd U. S. | Cl'd U. S. | FOREIGN TONNAGE. Ent'd U. S. | Cl'd U. S. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Russia, | 12,603 | 9,109 | 1,763 | 1,906 |
| Prussia, | 412 | 947 | 90 | 9,521 |
| Sweden and Norway, | 2,125 | 349 | 13,439 | 6,248 |
| Swedish West Indies, | 351 | 2,135 | ..... | ..... |
| Denmark, | ..... | 1,040 | 1,157 | 2,116 |
| Danish West Indies, | 28,312 | 28,920 | 1,669 | 1,457 |
| Hanse Towns, | 13,009 | 16,016 | 50,825 | 59,007 |
| Holland, | 20,207 | 27,859 | 5,023 | 16,547 |
| Dutch East Indies, | 3,944 | 4,592 | ..... | ..... |
| Dutch West Indies, | 15,041 | 5,025 | ..... | ..... |
| Dutch Guiana, | 6,334 | 6,740 | ..... | ..... |
| Belgium, | 11,740 | 20,289 | 2,656 | 4,542 |
| England, | 377,198 | 374,846 | 196,778 | 198,921 |
| Scotland, | 11,955 | 14,732 | 21,847 | 20,810 |
| Ireland, | 907 | 1,412 | 24,136 | 987 |
| Gibraltar, | 4,071 | 11,691 | 1,905 | 1,097 |
| Malta, | 299 | 954 | ..... | ..... |
| British East Indies, | 9,500 | 10,314 | 1,163 | ..... |
| Australia, | 413 | 498 | ..... | ..... |
| Cape of Good Hope, | ..... | 597 | ..... | ..... |
| Mauritius, | 4,548 | 3,869 | 887 | 663 |
| Honduras, | 4,672 | 12,325 | 4,203 | 2,801 |
| British Guiana, | 94,990 | 129,504 | 39,215 | 28,122 |
| British West Indies, | 684,359 | 677,935 | 463,748 | 512,004 |
| British N. American colonies, | 115,740 | 121,815 | 9,505 | 10,036 |
| France on the Atlantic, | 10,677 | 19,217 | 4,599 | 660 |
| France on the Mediterranean, | 24,709 | 33,150 | 4,564 | 1,294 |
| French West Indies, | 527 | 1,825 | ..... | ..... |
| Miquelon, and Fr. fisheries, | 1,310 | 1,547 | ..... | ..... |
| French Guiana, | ..... | ..... | 220 | 364 |
| French African ports, | 152 | 368 | ..... | 270 |
| Bourbon, | 16,643 | 6,528 | 1,676 | 672 |
| Spain on the Atlantic, | 10,127 | 3,909 | 8,074 | 1,056 |
| Spain on the Mediterranean, | 703 | 467 | 1,024 | 387 |
| Teneriffe, and other Canaries, | 4,025 | 3,230 | ..... | ..... |
| Manilla, and Philippine isles, | 193,183 | 171,892 | 9,238 | 16,193 |
| Cuba, | 51,150 | 28,575 | 629 | 622 |
| Other Spanish West Indies, | 10,266 | 5,803 | 1,100 | 990 |
| Portugal, | 813 | 2,081 | 599 | 491 |
| Madeira, | 2,330 | 184 | ..... | ..... |
| Fayal, and other Azores, | ..... | 4,256 | 105 | 170 |
| Cape de Verd islands, | 5,186 | 5,984 | 3,164 | 914 |

NAVIGATION OF THE UNITED STATES, IN 1845—CONTINUED.

| Countries. | AMERICAN TONNAGE. Ent'd U. S. | Cl'd U. S. | FOREIGN TONNAGE. Ent'd U. S. | Cl'd U. S. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Italy, | 22,711 | 445 | 6,022 | 3,628 |
| Sicily, | 1,134 | 4,332 | 1,104 | 1,411 |
| Sardinia, | 4,422 | 15,470 | 2,101 | 9,198 |
| Trieste, and oth. Aust. ports, | 250 | ..... | ..... | ..... |
| Ionian Republic, | 5,915 | 1,897 | 2,724 | ..... |
| Turkey, Levant, and Egypt, | 34,377 | 27,919 | 575 | 534 |
| Hayti, | 21,204 | 17,477 | 478 | ..... |
| China, | 15,740 | 18,930 | 1,987 | 2,221 |
| Texas, | 16,157 | 16,952 | 3,023 | 4,540 |
| Mexico, | 1,690 | 1,049 | 528 | 187 |
| Central America, | 3,569 | 1,562 | ..... | ..... |
| New Grenada, | 12,394 | 10,733 | 1,768 | 1,117 |
| Venezuela, | 50,230 | 40,716 | 2,481 | 2,077 |
| Brazil, | 11,653 | 10,667 | 1,889 | 843 |
| Argentine Republic, | 369 | 3,252 | ..... | 614 |
| Cisplatine Republic, | 4,872 | 8,273 | ..... | ..... |
| Chili, | 735 | ..... | 330 | ..... |
| Peru, | 243 | 1,001 | ..... | ..... |
| South America, generally, | 263 | 673 | ..... | ..... |
| Asia, generally, | 15,065 | 11,731 | 10,552 | 2,352 |
| Africa, generally, | ..... | ..... | ..... | 400 |
| Europe, generally, | ..... | 14,560 | ..... | ..... |
| West Indies, generally, | ..... | 1,822 | ..... | ..... |
| South Seas and Pacific ocean, | 57,218 | 70,282 | ..... | ..... |
| Northwest coast of America, | 596 | 1,254 | ..... | ..... |
| Sandwich islands, | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... |
| Uncertain places, | 148 | 451 | ..... | 285 |
| Total, | 2,035,486 | 2,053,977 | 910,563 | 930,275 |

TONNAGE OF THE UNITED STATES, IN 1845.

*Statement exhibiting a condensed view of the Tonnage of the several Districts of the United States, on the 30th day of June,* 1845.

| Districts. | | Registered tonnage. | Enr'lled and lic. tonnage. *Tons and 95ths.* | Tot. tonnage of each dist. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Passamaquoddy, | Maine, | 4,524 35 | 6,836 32 | 11,360 67 |
| Machias, | " | 360 37 | 11,692 74 | 12,053 16 |
| Frenchman's Bay, | " | 1,989 26 | 20,314 91 | 22,304 22 |
| Penobscot, | " | 6,520 49 | 24,836 05 | 31,356 54 |
| Belfast, | " | 3,243 82 | 28,197 87 | 31,440 74 |
| Waldoborough, | " | 20,374 86 | 37,932 47 | 58,307 38 |
| Wiscasset, | " | 5,584 29 | 10,547 80 | 16,132 14 |
| Bath, | " | 41,986 54 | 20,399 33 | 62,385 87 |
| Portland, | " | 44,352 87 | 19,838 73 | 64,191 65 |
| Saco, | " | 335 66 | 1,965 29 | 2,301 00 |
| Kennebunk, | " | 4,708 81 | 2,312 30 | 7,021 16 |
| York, | " | 152 58 | 1,051 31 | 1,203 89 |
| Burlington, | Vermont, | ..... | 2,318 73 | 2,318 73 |
| Portsmouth, | New Hampshire, | 14,849 45 | 8,921 30 | 23,770 75 |
| Newburyport, | Massachusetts, | 16,586 32 | 5,396 59 | 21,982 91 |
| Ipswich, | " | ..... | ..... | ..... |
| Gloucester, | " | 2,380 34 | 14,748 83 | 17,129 22 |
| Salem, | " | 18,781 31 | 11,181 93 | 29,963 29 |
| Beverly, | " | ..... | 913 53 | 913 53 |
| Marblehead, | " | 1,849 31 | 8,121 32 | 9,970 63 |
| Boston, | " | 187,712 50 | 40,282 04 | 227.994 54 |
| Plymouth, | " | 5,568 18 | 8,055 74 | 13,623 92 |
| Fall River, | " | 3,004 21 | 5,162 54 | 8,166 65 |
| New Bedford, | " | 103,428 17 | 8,893 20 | 112,321 37 |
| Barnstable, | " | 6,308 36 | 36,694 28 | 43,002 64 |

TONNAGE OF THE UNITED STATES, IN 1845—CONTINUED.

| Districts. | | Registered tonnage. | Enr'lled and lic. tonnage. Tons and Tons. | Tot. tonnage of each dist. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Edgartown, | Massachusetts,..... | 7,146 94 | 1,126 66 | 8,273 65 |
| Nantucket, | " ..... | 28,690 33 | 2,962 12 | 31,652 15 |
| Providence, | Rhode Island,..... | 14,557 31 | 6,533 22 | 21,090 63 |
| Bristol, | " ..... | 11,163 01 | 2,541 71 | 13,704 72 |
| Newport, | " ..... | 7,082 08 | 5,331 49 | 12,413 57 |
| Middletown, | Connecticut,..... | 974 71 | 8,507 41 | 9,482 17 |
| New London, | " ..... | 30,113 83 | 10,452 19 | 40,566 07 |
| Stonington, | " ..... ..... | 11,427 10 | 6,147 36 | 17.574 46 |
| New Haven, | " ..... | 4,788 66 | 5,545 80 | 10,334 51 |
| Fairfield, | " ..... | 1,063 55 | 12,547 28 | 13,610 88 |
| Champlain, | New York,..... | ..... | 3,192 34 | 3,192 34 |
| Sackett's Harbor, | " ..... | ..... | 3,419 77 | 3,419 77 |
| Oswego, | " ..... | ..... | 11,410 55 | 11,410 55 |
| Niagara, | " ..... | ..... | 12 49 | 12 49 |
| Genesee, | " ..... | ..... | 235 05 | 235 05 |
| Oswegatchie, | " ..... | ..... | 1,455 79 | 1,455 79 |
| Buffalo, | " ..... | ..... | 24,770 29 | 24,770 29 |
| Sag Harbor, | " ..... | 22,166 90 | 6,181 47 | 28,348 42 |
| New York, | " ..... | 248,717 00 | 301,642 48 | 550,359 48 |
| Cape Vincent, | " ..... | ..... | 2,670 58 | 2,670 58 |
| Perth Amboy, | New Jersey,..... | ..... | 19,247 05 | 19,247 05 |
| Bridgetown, | " ..... | 627 82 | 10,445 55 | 11,073 42 |
| Burlington, | " ..... | ..... | 4,091 72 | 4,091 72 |
| Camden, | " ..... | ..... | 5,829 73 | 5,829 73 |
| Newark, | " ..... | 84 68 | 16,348 79 | 16,433 52 |
| Little Egg Harbor, | " ..... | ..... | 4,711 72 | 4,711 72 |
| Great Egg Harbor, | " ..... | ..... | 8,583 10 | 8,583 10 |
| Philadelphia, | Pennsylvania,..... | 39,274 44 | 91,132 44 | 130,406 88 |
| Presqu' Isle, | " ..... | ..... | 4,121 80 | 4,121 80 |
| Pittsburgh, | " ..... | ..... | 13,283 47 | 13,283 47 |
| Wilmington, | Delaware,..... | 2,829 78 | 4,212 54 | 6,542 37 |
| Newcastle, | " ..... | ..... | 5,392 22 | 5,392 22 |
| Baltimore, | Maryland,..... | 44,767 70 | 38,833 61 | 83,601 36 |
| Oxford, | " ..... | ..... | 9,059 76 | 9,059 76 |
| Vienna, | " ..... | 337 75 | 12,993 40 | 13,331 20 |
| Snow Hill, | " ..... | ..... | 6,584 49 | 6,584 49 |
| St. Mary's, | " ..... | ..... | 1,687 57 | 1,687 57 |
| Town Creek, | " ..... | ..... | 1,441 10 | 1,441 10 |
| Annapolis, | " ..... | 259 88 | 2,198 82 | 2,458 75 |
| Georgetown, | Dis. of Columbia,..... | 3,055 82 | 7,534 31 | 10,590 18 |
| Alexandria, | " ..... | 5,818 58 | 4,208 32 | 10,026 90 |
| Norfolk, | Virginia,..... | 10,101 41 | 10,691 34 | 20,792 75 |
| Petersburgh, | " ..... | ..... | 731 24 | 731 24 |
| Richmond, | " ..... | 3,504 47 | 5,047 20 | 8,551 67 |
| Yorktown, | " ..... ..... | ..... | 2,801 40 | 2,801 40 |
| East River, | " ..... | ..... | 3,527 05 | 3,527 05 |
| Tappahannock, | " ..... | 319 18 | 4,634 39 | 4,953 57 |
| Folly Landing, | " ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... |
| Accomac C. H., | " ..... | ..... | 2,894 06 | 2,894 06 |
| Yeocomico, | " ..... | ..... | 3,116 64 | 3,116 64 |
| Cherrystone, | " ..... | 62 52 | 1,777 21 | 1,839 73 |
| Wheeling, | " ..... | ..... | 1,487 91 | 1,487 91 |
| Wilmington, | North Carolina,..... | 11,472 01 | 3,770 70 | 15,242 71 |
| Newbern, | " ..... | 1,531 52 | 2,914 94 | 4,446 51 |
| Washington, | " ..... | 1,179 79 | 2,488 53 | 3,668 37 |
| Edenton, | " ..... | 158 03 | 1,223 40 | 1,381 43 |
| Camden, | " ..... | 733 04 | 8,784 20 | 9,517 24 |
| Beaufort, | " ..... | ..... | 239 92 | 239 92 |
| Plymouth, | " ..... | 519 20 | 1,221 65 | 1,740 85 |
| Ocracoke, | " ..... | 1,271 90 | 1,194 20 | 2,466 15 |

TONNAGE OF THE UNITED STATES, IN 1845—CONTINUED.

| Districts. | | Registered tonnage. | Enr'lled and lic. tonnage. Tons and 95ths. | Tot. tonnage of each dist. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Charleston, | South Carolina,..... | 8,294 67 | 9,948 80 | 18,173 52 |
| Beaufort, | " ..... | ..... | 239 92 | 239 92 |
| Georgetown, | " ..... | 169 38 | 1,032 31 | 1,201 69 |
| Savannah, | Georgia, ..... | 8,117 73 | 7,099 55 | 15,217 33 |
| Sunbury, | " ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... |
| Brunswick, | " ..... | ..... | 147 84 | 147 84 |
| Hardwick, | " ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... |
| St. Mary's, | " ..... | 458 27 | 316 77 | 775 09 |
| Pensacola, | Florida,..... | 1,276 60 | 1,046 37 | 2,323 02 |
| St. Augustine, | " ..... | 360 55 | 149 69 | 510 29 |
| Apalachicola, | " ..... | 70 81 | 2,916 92 | 2,987 78 |
| St. Mark's, | " ..... | ..... | 142 18 | 142 18 |
| St John's, | " ..... | ..... | 309 13 | 309 13 |
| Key West, | " ..... | 3,284 65 | 1,798 10 | 5,082 75 |
| Mobile, | Alabama,..... | 5,287 31 | 12,622 27 | 17,909 58 |
| Pearl River, | Mississippi,..... | ..... | 1,055 43 | 1,055 43 |
| New Orleans, | Louisiana,..... | 58,018 18 | 111,753 42 | 169,771 60 |
| Teche, | " ..... | ..... | 753 58 | 753 58 |
| Nashville, | Tennessee, ..... | ..... | 2,809 23 | 2,809 23 |
| Louisville, | Kentucky,..... | ..... | 8,751 02 | 8,751 02 |
| St. Louis, | Missouri,..... | ..... | 18,905 69 | 18,905 69 |
| Cuyahoga, | Ohio,..... | ..... | 17,562 35 | 17,562 35 |
| Sandusky, | " ..... | ..... | 1,392 61 | 1,392 61 |
| Cincinnati, | " ..... | ..... | 14,403 21 | 14,403 21 |
| Miami, | " ..... | ..... | 1,915 43 | 1,915 43 |
| Detroit, | Michigan,..... | ..... | 19,251 29 | 19,251 29 |
| Michilimackinac, | " ..... | ..... | 524 38 | 524 38 |
| Total,..... | | 1,095,172 44 | 1,321,829 57 | 2,417,002 06 |

VESSELS BUILT IN EACH STATE, IN 1845.

*A Statement of the number and class of vessels built, and the tonnage thereof, in each State and Territory of the United States, for the year ending 30th June,* 1845.

| States. | Ships. | Brigs. | Schrs. | Sl'ps and canal-bts. | St'mb'ts. | Total. | TOT TON'GE. Tons & 95ths. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Maine,..... | 43 | 33 | 82 | ..... | 2 | 160 | 31,105 04 |
| New Hampshire,..... | 4 | 1 | ..... | ..... | ..... | 5 | 2,501 08 |
| Vermont, ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... |
| Massachusetts,..... | 42 | 16 | 54 | 1 | 2 | 115 | 25,961 50 |
| Rhode Island,..... | 3 | ..... | 2 | 2 | 1 | 8 | 1,661 26 |
| Connecticut,..... | 1 | 2 | 16 | 2 | 1 | 22 | 2,607 76 |
| New York,..... | 18 | 7 | 35 | 153 | 17 | 230 | 29,342 60 |
| New Jersey,..... | 1 | 4 | 9 | 45 | 5 | 64 | 4,465 06 |
| Pennsylvania,..... | 6 | 4 | 7 | 107 | 54 | 178 | 15,819 17 |
| Delaware,..... | ..... | ..... | 8 | ..... | 1 | 9 | 668 91 |
| Maryland,..... | 4 | 15 | 47 | ..... | ..... | 66 | 7,257 44 |
| Virginia,..... | 2 | 1 | 5 | 3 | 3 | 14 | 2,056 59 |
| North Carolina,..... | ..... | ..... | 10 | 3 | 1 | 14 | 859 72 |
| South Carolina,..... | ..... | ..... | 2 | ..... | ..... | 2 | 102 10 |
| Georgia,..... | ..... | ..... | 1 | ..... | ..... | 1 | 83 14 |
| Florida,..... | ..... | ..... | 3 | ..... | 1 | 4 | 257 04 |
| Alabama,..... | ..... | ..... | 1 | ..... | ..... | 1 | 79 70 |
| Mississippi,..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... |
| Louisiana,..... | ..... | ..... | 6 | 2 | 6 | 14 | 626 62 |
| Tennessee,..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | 1 | 1 | 141 47 |
| Kentucky,..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | 26 | 26 | 5,681 01 |
| Missouri, ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... |
| Ohio,..... | ..... | 4 | 10 | ..... | 42 | 56 | 11,599 39 |
| Michigan,..... | ..... | ..... | 24 | 9 | 4 | 37 | 2,725 65 |
| District of Columbia,. | ..... | ..... | ..... | 15 | ..... | 15 | 416 32 |
| Total,..... | 124 | 87 | 322 | 342 | 163 | 1,038 | 146,018 02 |

## TONNAGE CLEARED FROM EACH STATE, ETC., OF THE UNITED STATES, IN 1845.

| States. | American. | | | | Foreign. | | | | Total American and Foreign. | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | Crews. | | | | Crews. | | | | Crews. | |
| | No. | Tons. | Men. | Boys. | No. | Tons. | Men. | Boys. | No. | Tons. | Men. | Boys. |
| Maine, | 492 | 88,602 | 3,592 | 197 | 796 | 62,901 | 3,539 | 61 | 1,288 | 151,503 | 7,131 | 258 |
| New Hampshire, | 2 | 169 | 8 | 2 | 56 | 2,849 | 189 | ..... | 58 | 3,018 | 197 | 2 |
| Vermont, | 265 | 52,728 | 1,492 | 588 | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | 265 | 52,728 | 1,492 | 588 |
| Massachusetts, | 1,056 | 231,096 | 12,197 | 198 | 2,557 | 122,212 | 7,854 | 2 | 2,613 | 353,308 | 20,051 | 200 |
| Rhode Island, | 81 | 14,598 | 810 | 43 | 2 | 196 | 11 | ..... | 83 | 14,794 | 821 | 43 |
| Connecticut, | 159 | 37,086 | 2,346 | 173 | 18 | 2,101 | 104 | ..... | 177 | 39,187 | 2,450 | 173 |
| New York, | 3,385 | 926,280 | 52,083 | 981 | 2,148 | 414,688 | 29,687 | 381 | 5,533 | 1,340,968 | 81,770 | 1,362 |
| New Jersey, | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... |
| Pennsylvania, | 341 | 63,271 | 2,855 | 231 | 63 | 12,987 | 536 | 74 | 404 | 76,258 | 3,391 | 305 |
| Delaware, | 32 | 4,953 | 250 | 1 | 1 | 100 | 6 | ..... | 33 | 5,053 | 256 | 1 |
| Maryland, | 344 | 69,716 | 3,123 | ..... | 106 | 22,342 | 1,134 | ..... | 450 | 92,058 | 4,257 | ..... |
| Dis. of Columbia, | 64 | 10,772 | 452 | 13 | 19 | 2,529 | 133 | 2 | 83 | 13,301 | 585 | 15 |
| Virginia, | 175 | 36,180 | 1,535 | ..... | 19 | 4,521 | 200 | ..... | 194 | 40,701 | 1,735 | ..... |
| North Carolina, | 284 | 39,757 | 1,937 | 3 | 36 | 5,170 | 258 | ..... | 320 | 44,927 | 2,195 | 3 |
| South Carolina, | 328 | 86,768 | 3,474 | 32 | 126 | 33,912 | 1,271 | 200 | 454 | 120,680 | 4,745 | 232 |
| Georgia, | 127 | 40,410 | 1,509 | ..... | 76 | 35,250 | 1,265 | ..... | 203 | 75,660 | 2,744 | ..... |
| Alabama, | 190 | 80,032 | 2,766 | ..... | 116 | 62,491 | 2,411 | ..... | 306 | 142,523 | 5,177 | ..... |
| Louisiana, | 639 | 243,543 | 8,584 | ..... | 331 | 129,561 | 5,135 | ..... | 970 | 373,104 | 13,989 | ..... |
| Mississippi, | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... |
| Tennessee, | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... |
| Missouri, | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... |
| Ohio | 77 | 6,324 | 338 | ..... | 13 | 1,901 | 60 | ..... | 90 | 7,525 | 398 | ..... |
| Kentucky, | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... |
| Michigan, | 14 | 1,807 | 103 | ..... | 62 | 8,542 | 481 | ..... | 76 | 10,349 | 584 | ..... |
| Florida, | 142 | 19,885 | 1,070 | ..... | 38 | 6,722 | 383 | ..... | 180 | 26,607 | 1,453 | ..... |
| Total, | 8,197 | 2,053,977 | 100,794 | 2,462 | 5,583 | 930,275 | 54,657 | 720 | 13,780 | 2,984,252 | 155,451 | 3,182 |

## TONNAGE ENTERED INTO EACH STATE, ETC., OF THE UNITED STATES IN 1845.

| States. | American. | | | | Foreign. | | | | Total American and Foreign. | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | Crews. | | | | Crews. | | | | Crews. | |
| | No. | Tons. | Men. | Boys. | No. | Tons. | Men. | Boys. | No. | Tons. | Men. | Boys. |
| Maine, | 270 | 54,029 | 2,101 | 116 | 805 | 63,336 | 3,564 | 62 | 1,075 | 117,365 | 5,665 | 178 |
| New Hampshire, | 11 | 5,027 | 135 | 27 | 55 | 2,805 | 191 | ..... | 66 | 7,832 | 326 | 27 |
| Vermont, | 276 | 53,456 | 1,536 | 600 | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | 276 | 53,456 | 1,536 | 600 |
| Massachusetts, | 1,204 | 276,589 | 13,010 | 385 | 1,571 | 118,398 | 8,099 | 2 | 2,775 | 394,987 | 21,109 | 387 |
| Rhode Island, | 100 | 20,481 | 1,107 | 21 | 2 | 196 | 11 | ..... | 102 | 20,677 | 1,118 | 21 |
| Connecticut, | 131 | 27,713 | 1,718 | 50 | 17 | 1,844 | 98 | ..... | 148 | 29,557 | 1,816 | 50 |
| New York, | 3,741 | 1,037,370 | 56,251 | 1,065 | 2,185 | 413,340 | 30,179 | 384 | 5,926 | 1,450,710 | 86,430 | 1,449 |
| New Jersey, | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | 1 | 62 | 5 | ..... | 1 | 62 | 5 | ..... |
| Pennsylvania, | 344 | 77,335 | 3,263 | 268 | 77 | 14,065 | 625 | 87 | 421 | 91,400 | 3,888 | 355 |
| Delaware, | 12 | 1,597 | 109 | ..... | 1 | 100 | 6 | ..... | 13 | 1,697 | 115 | ..... |
| Maryland, | 286 | 59,944 | 2,566 | ..... | 98 | 20,076 | 1,028 | ..... | 384 | 80,020 | 3,594 | ..... |
| Dis. of Columbia, | 30 | 5,294 | 230 | 4 | 18 | 2,232 | 120 | 2 | 48 | 7,526 | 350 | 6 |
| Virginia, | 60 | 10,642 | 482 | ..... | 10 | 1,290 | 79 | ..... | 70 | 11,932 | 561 | ..... |
| North Carolina, | 246 | 33,456 | 1,623 | 10 | 38 | 5,276 | 266 | ..... | 284 | 38,732 | 1,889 | 10 |
| South Carolina, | 208 | 40,334 | 1,823 | 16 | 98 | 31,856 | 1,248 | 163 | 306 | 72,190 | 3,071 | 179 |
| Georgia, | 67 | 15,062 | 623 | ..... | 72 | 33,816 | 1,248 | ..... | 139 | 48,898 | 1,871 | ..... |
| Alabama, | 137 | 47,654 | 1,720 | ..... | 117 | 62,952 | 2,413 | ..... | 254 | 110,606 | 4,133 | ..... |
| Louisiana, | 752 | 237,268 | 9,029 | ..... | 320 | 126,719 | 5,203 | ..... | 1,072 | 363,987 | 14,232 | ..... |
| Mississippi, | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... |
| Tennessee, | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... |
| Missouri, | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... |
| Ohio, | 61 | 3,864 | 221 | ..... | 7 | 609 | 30 | ..... | 68 | 4,473 | 251 | ..... |
| Kentucky, | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... |
| Michigan, | 11 | 693 | 39 | ..... | 61 | 6,694 | 516 | ..... | 72 | 7,387 | ..... | ..... |
| Florida, | 186 | 27,658 | 1,434 | ..... | 37 | 4,897 | 386 | ..... | 223 | 32,555 | 555 | ..... |
| | | | | | | | | | | | 1,820 | |
| Total, | 8,133 | 2,035,486 | 99,020 | 2,562 | 5,590 | 910,563 | 55,315 | 700 | 13,723 | 2,946,049 | 154,335 | 3,262 |

## PROGRESS OF THE TONNAGE OF THE UNITED STATES, IN THIRTY-ONE YEARS.

*A comparative view of the registered and enrolled tonnage of the United States; showing the registered tonnage employed in the whale fishery; also, the proportion of the enrolled and licensed tonnage employed in the coasting trade, cod fishery, mackerel fishery, and whale fishery, from 1815 to 1845, inclusive*

| Years. | Regist'd tonnage. | Enr'd & lic. tonnage. | Total tonnage. | Registered tonnage employed in the whale fishery. | PROPORTION OF ENROLLED AND LICENSED TONNAGE EMPLOYED IN THE— | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | | | Coasting trade. | Cod fishery. | Mackerel fishery. | Whale fishery. |
| 1815,..... | 854,294 74 | 513,833 04 | 1,368,127 78 | ..... | 435,066 87 | 26,510 33 | ..... | 1,229 92 |
| 1816,..... | 800,759 63 | 571,458 85 | 1,372,218 48 | ..... | 479,979 14 | 37,879 30 | ..... | 1,168 00 |
| 1817,..... | 809,724 70 | 590,186 66 | 1,399,911 41 | 4,874 41 | 481,457 92 | 53,990 26 | ..... | 349 92 |
| 1818,..... | 606,088 64 | 619,095 51 | 1,225,184 20 | 16,134 77 | 503,140 37 | 58,551 72 | ..... | 614 63 |
| 1819,..... | 619,930 44 | 647,821 17 | 1,260,751 61 | 37,700 40 | 523,556 20 | 65,044 92 | ..... | 686 35 |
| 1820,..... | 619,047 53 | 661,118 66 | 1,280,166 24 | 35,391 44 | 539,080 46 | 60,842 55 | ..... | 1,053 66 |
| 1821,..... | 619,896 40 | 679,062 30 | 1,298,958 70 | 26,070 83 | 559,435 57 | 51,351 49 | ..... | 1,924 40 |
| 1822,..... | 628,150 41 | 696,548 71 | 1,324,699 17 | 45,449 42 | 573,080 02 | 58,405 35 | ..... | 3,133 50 |
| 1823,..... | 639,920 76 | 696,644 87 | 1,336,565 68 | 39,918 13 | 566,408 88 | 67,626 14 | ..... | 585 37 |
| 1824,..... | 669,972 60 | 719,190 37 | 1,389,163 02 | 33,165 70 | 589,223 01 | 68,419 00 | ..... | 180 06 |
| 1825,..... | 700,787 08 | 722,323 69 | 1,423,110 77 | 35,379 24 | 587,273 07 | 70,626 02 | ..... | ..... |
| 1826,..... | 737,978 15 | 796,211 68 | 1,534,189 83 | 41,757 32 | 666,420 44 | 63,761 42 | ..... | 296 68 |
| 1827,..... | 747,170 44 | 873,437 34 | 1,620,607 78 | 45,653 21 | 732,937 65 | 74,048 81 | ..... | 338 94 |
| 1828,..... | 812,619 34 | 928,772 52 | 1,741,391 87 | 54,621 08 | 758,922 12 | 74,945 74 | ..... | 180 34 |
| 1829, ..... | 650,142 88 | 610,654 88 | 1,260,797 81 | 57,284 38 | 508.858 10 | 101,796 78 | ..... | ..... |
| 1830, ..... | 576,475 33 | 615,311 10 | 1,191,776 43 | 38,911 82 | 516,978 18 | 61,554 57 | 35,973 38 | 792 87 |
| 1831,..... | 620,451 92 | 647,394 32 | 1,267,846 29 | 82,315 79 | 539,723 74 | 60,977 81 | 46,210 80 | 481 82 |
| 1832,..... | 686,989 77 | 752,460 39 | 1,439,450 21 | 72,868 84 | 649,627 40 | 54,027 70 | 47,427 72 | 377 47 |
| 1833,..... | 750,126 72 | 856,123 22 | 1,606,149 94 | 101,158 17 | 744,198 60 | 62,720 70 | 48.725 43 | 478 39 |
| 1834,..... | 857,438 42 | 901,468 67 | 1,758,907 14 | 108,060 14 | 783.618 65 | 56,403 70 | 61,082 11 | 364 16 |
| 1835,..... | 885,821 60 | 939,118 49 | 1,824,940 14 | 97,640 00 | 792,301 20 | 72,374 18 | 64,443 11 | ..... |
| 1836,..... | 897,774 51 | 984.328 14 | 1,882,102 65 | 144,680 50 | 873,023 21 | 63,307 37 | 46,424 25 | 1,573 26 |
| 1837,..... | 810,447 29 | 1,086,238 40 | 1,896,685 69 | 127,241 81 | 956,980 60 | 80,551 89 | 46,810 90 | 1,894 86 |
| 1838,..... | 822,591 86 | 1,173,047 89 | 1,995,639 80 | 119,629 89 | 1,041,105 18 | 70,064 00 | 56,649 16 | 5,229 55 |
| 1839,..... | 834,244 54 | 1,262,234 27 | 2,096,478 81 | 131,845 25 | 1,153,551 80 | 72,258 68 | 35,983 87 | 439 69 |
| 1840,..... | 899,764 76 | 1,280,999 35 | 2,180,764 16 | 136 926 64 | 1,176,694 46 | 76,035 65 | 28,269 19 | ..... |
| 1841,..... | 945,803 42 | 1,184.940 90 | 2,130,744 37 | 157,405 17 | 1,107,067 88 | 66,551 84 | 11,321 13 | ..... |
| 1842,..... | 975.358 74 | 1,117,031 90 | 2,092,390 69 | 151,612 74 | 1,045,753 39 | 54,804 02 | 16,096 83 | 377 31 |
| 1843,..... | 1,009.305 01 | 1,149.297 92 | 2,158,601 93 | 152 374 86 | 1,076.155 59 | 61,224 25 | 11,775 70 | 149 33 |
| 1844,..... | 1,068,761 91 | 1,211,330 11 | 2,280,095 07 | 168,293 63 | 1,109.614 44 | 85.224 77 | 16,170 66 | 320 14 |
| 1845,..... | 1,095,172 44 | 1,321,829 57 | 2,417,002 06 | 190,695 65 | 1,190,898 27 | 69,825 66 | 21,413 16 | 206 99 |

### VESSELS BUILT IN THE UNITED STATES IN THIRTY-ONE YEARS.

*Statement showing the number and class of vessels built in the several States and Territories of the United States, from* 1815 *to* 1845, *inclusive.*

| Years. | Ships. | Brigs. | Schrs. | Sloops and canal-b'ts. | St'mers. | Total. | TOT. TON'GE. Tons. 95ths. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1815,..... | 136 | 224 | 680 | 274 | ..... | 1,314 | 154,624 39 |
| 1816, ..... | 76 | 121 | 781 | 424 | ..... | 1,403 | 131,668 04 |
| 1817,..... | 34 | 86 | 559 | 394 | ..... | 1,073 | 86,393 37 |
| 1818,..... | 53 | 85 | 428 | 332 | ..... | 898 | 82,421 20 |
| 1819,..... | 53 | 82 | 473 | 242 | ..... | 850 | 79,817 86 |
| 1820,..... | 21 | 60 | 301 | 152 | ..... | 534 | 47,784 01 |
| 1821,..... | 43 | 89 | 248 | 127 | ..... | 507 | 55,856 01 |
| 1822,..... | 64 | 131 | 260 | 168 | ..... | 623 | 75,346 93 |
| 1823,..... | 55 | 127 | 260 | 165 | 15 | 622 | 75,007 57 |
| 1824,..... | 56 | 156 | 377 | 166 | 26 | 781 | 90,939 00 |
| 1825,..... | 56 | 197 | 538 | 168 | 35 | 994 | 114,997 25 |
| 1826,..... | 71 | 187 | 482 | 227 | 45 | 1,012 | 126,438 35 |
| 1827, ..... | 58 | 133 | 464 | 241 | 38 | 934 | 104,342 67 |
| 1828,..... | 73 | 108 | 474 | 196 | 33 | 884 | 98,375 58 |
| 1829,..... | 44 | 68 | 485 | 145 | 43 | 785 | 77,998 65 |
| 1830,..... | 25 | 56 | 403 | 116 | 37 | 637 | 58,094 24 |
| 1831,..... | 72 | 95 | 416 | 94 | 34 | 711 | 85,962 69 |
| 1832,..... | 132 | 143 | 568 | 122 | 100 | 1,065 | 144,539 16 |
| 1833,..... | 144 | 169 | 625 | 185 | 65 | 1,189 | 161,626 36 |
| 1834,..... | 98 | 94 | 497 | 180 | 68 | 937 | 118,330 27 |
| 1835,..... | 25 | 50 | 302 | 100 | 30 | 507 | *46,238 52 |
| 1836,..... | 93 | 65 | 444 | 164 | 124 | 890 | 113,627 49 |
| 1837, ..... | 67 | 72 | 507 | 168 | 135 | 949 | 122,987 22 |
| 1838,..... | 66 | 79 | 510 | 153 | 90 | 898 | 113,135 44 |
| 1839,..... | 83 | 89 | 439 | 122 | 125 | 858 | 120,988 34 |
| 1840,..... | 97 | 109 | 378 | 294 | 64 | 872 | 118,309 23 |
| 1841,..... | 114 | 101 | 312 | 157 | 78 | 762 | 118,893 71 |
| 1842,..... ..... | 116 | 91 | 273 | 404 | 137 | 1,021 | 128,083 64 |
| 1843, for 9 mos.,. | 58 | 34 | 138 | 173 | 79 | 482 | 63,617 77 |
| 1844,..... | 73 | 47 | 204 | 279 | 163 | 766 | 103,537 29 |
| 1845,..... | 124 | 87 | 322 | 342 | 163 | 1,038 | 146,018 02 |

## SHIPPING OF THE PORT OF PHILADELPHIA.

We published in the Merchants' Magazine for November, 1845, (Vol. xiii., No. 5,) a tabular statement of the shipping of all denominations, owned in New York, prepared by Mr. J. Dodge, Jr., a clerk in the naval office, and in the number for January, 1846, (Vol. xiv., No. 1,) a similar account of the shipping of Boston, politely furnished by the Hon. MARCUS MORTON, the Collector of that port. For the following corresponding statement of the shipping of Philadelphia, we are indebted, as will be seen by the annexed note, to HENRY HORN, Esq., the Collector of Customs for the port of Philadelphia. According to the last annual report of the Secretary of the Treasury, the aggregate tonnage of the district of Philadelphia, on the last day of June, 1845, was 130,406.88; that of Boston, 227,994.54; and that of New York district, 550,359.48.*

COLLECTOR'S OFFICE, District of Philadelphia, 19th March, 1846.

SIR—I send you herewith a table of the number, names, and tonnage of vessels employed at this place. It is as nearly correct as we can make it, from the data in this office. Very respectfully yours, &c. HENRY HORN, *Collector.*

FREEMAN HUNT, Esq.

* For tonnage of the several collection districts of the United States, in 1845, see pages 473, 474, 475, of the present number of this Magazine.

STATEMENT OF THE NAMES AND TONNAGE OF VESSELS BELONGING TO THE PORT OF PHILADELPHIA.

*Ships.*

| Names. | Tons. | Names. | Tons. | Names. | Tons. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Alleghany, | 398.46 | Monongahela, | 496.88 | Swatara, | 747.92 |
| Commerce, | 430.82 | North Star, | 398.81 | Saranak, | 816.15 |
| Champlain, | 624.46 | Ondiaka, | 748.55 | Stephen Baldwin, | 634.74 |
| Caledonia Brander, | 548.82 | Shenandoah, | 738.30 | Thomas C. Cope, | 727.70 |
| Globe, | 479.19 | Shanunga, | 546.40 | Tartar, | 573.33 |
| Georgiana, | 544.70 | Susquehannah, | 583.64 | Venice, | 558.00 |
| Lehigh, | 541.80 | St. Louis, | 344.68 | Wyoming, | 891.02 |
| Levant, | 465.33 | | | | |

*Barks.*

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Ann Hood, | 312.47 | Harriet Thompson, | 238.48 | Navarre, | 242.39 |
| Anna Reynolds, | 197.36 | James Bayley, | 207.53 | Ohio, | 237.45 |
| Coosa, | 258.68 | J. Welsh, | 196.78 | Osceola, | 264.42 |
| Cora, | 166.03 | Josephine, | 324.92 | Paez, | 235.68 |
| Chester, | 326.33 | Levant, | 146.70 | Pons, | 196.57 |
| Delaware, | 198.19 | Lydia Ann, | 198.00 | St. Cloud, | 239.94 |
| Elizabeth J., | 166.32 | Louisa, | 182.53 | Swan, | 243.04 |
| Fairmount, | 206.25 | Madeline, | 293.03 | Sarah Hand, | 282.31 |
| Globe, | 260.30 | Manchester, | 379.55 | Venezuela, | 215.16 |
| Georgiana, | 279.40 | Nashua, | 285.26 | | |

*Brigs.*

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Ada Eliza, | 139.44 | Emily Cummings, | 155.06 | Paul T. Jones, | 174.49 |
| Adele, | 180.74 | Elizabeth, | 152.01 | Pennsylvania, | 205.16 |
| Adeline, | 197.00 | Fairy, | 165.91 | Putnam, | 187.50 |
| Betsey and Jane, | 153.75 | Genius, | 128.92 | Rowena, | 161.74 |
| Brandywine, | 207.58 | Gardner H. Wright, | 135.00 | R. F. Loper, | 167.57 |
| Caspian, | 148.51 | Huntress, | 166.40 | Rebecca, | 197.13 |
| Caraccas, | 172.37 | Independence, | 225.30 | Seaman, | 124.34 |
| Consert, | 225.02 | Ida, | 175.47 | Swan, | 180.19 |
| Cumberland, | 155.12 | John Potter, | 165.91 | Ursula, | 106.09 |
| Clara, | 150.05 | J. Cohen, Jr., | 149.72 | Vesper, | 127.38 |
| Delaware, | 186.23 | Jane, | 168.53 | Wm. J. Watson, | 149.19 |
| Despatch, | 180.10 | Jos. Cowperthwait, | 170.49 | Will, | 156.28 |
| Ducamin, | 164.29 | Madrid, | 155.91 | Wissahickon, | 166.36 |
| David Duffel, | 188.76 | Mary, | 123.81 | Wm. Price, | 239.37 |
| E. D. Wolfe, | 168.38 | Norris Stanley, | 177.09 | | |

*Schooners.*

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Angeline, | 110.13 | Cath. Amanda, | 87.39 | Excellent, | 67.78 |
| American Eagle, | 125.65 | Comet, | 71.78 | Factor, | 98.53 |
| Ann Stille, | 117.01 | Chapman Keeler, | 45.41 | Friendship, | 38.87 |
| Augustus Lord, | 79.81 | Defiance, | 76.60 | Frances Jane, | 37.49 |
| Augusta, | 99.80 | Driver, | 138.03 | Florida, | 29.81 |
| Armer Patton, | 167.29 | Deborah and Sally, | 20.81 | Gilbert Hatfield, | 140.85 |
| Albion, | 45.26 | Delaware, | 169.76 | Gen. Warren, | 128.55 |
| Ashland, | 66.89 | Damsel, | 31.19 | Gen. Scott, | 80.06 |
| Angel. R. Thompson, | 97.70 | Emeline, | 121.33 | Gardner H. Wright, | 135.39 |
| Ann Orelia, | 51.48 | Ezra Wheeler, | 136.34 | Gen. Marion, | 37.28 |
| Baltimore, | 98.59 | Euphrates, | 84.78 | Gen. Patterson, | 159.59 |
| Brave, | 32.00 | Elizabeth, | 114.34 | Geo. M. Dallas, | 30.17 |
| C. E. Stockton, | 113.80 | Elizabeth Ann, | 54.55 | Gil Blas, | 96.52 |
| C. M. Thompson, | 106.91 | Enoch E. Turley, | 90.16 | George and Jane, | 60.73 |
| Caspian, | 90.48 | Eliza Jane, | 20.91 | Gen. Pike, | 47.48 |
| Charlotte Harper, | 129.52 | Emma, | 134.42 | Geo. Washington, | 29.14 |
| Commodator, | 26.69 | Elizabeth Ellen, | 22.06 | Gratitude, | 97.86 |
| Chas. D. Ellis, | 128.08 | Eliza Ann Ballard, | 48.12 | Gen. Jackson, | 29.12 |
| Chief, | 145.12 | Ellen, | 165.50 | Gen. Isaac Davis, | 70.81 |
| Columbus, | 53.40 | Edmund S. Conner, | 20.35 | George, | 25.79 |
| Cath. H. Brown, | 75.77 | Ellsler, | 23.10 | Gov. Bennett, | 60.25 |
| Columbia, | 112.19 | Elizabeth, | 36.36 | H. Westcott, | 122.40 |

| Names. | Tons. | Names. | Tons. | Names. | Tons. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Henry Cameron, | 89.87 | Lady Helen Mar, | 35.61 | Spartan, | 47.72 |
| Henry W. Safford, | 108.30 | Lincoln Hero, | 46.51 | Sarah, | 83.61 |
| Henry, | 63.46 | Monsoon, | 99.54 | Select, | 90.50 |
| Henry G. King, | 141.00 | Mary Patton, | 133.30 | Splendid, | 98.13 |
| Herald, | 76.80 | Mary Ann, | 41.16 | Swallow, | 90.33 |
| Heart of Oak, | 20.85 | Maria, | 90.14 | Superb, | 123.87 |
| Henry Chase, | 129.67 | Mercy, | 99.48 | Sally Ann Martha, | 92.83 |
| H. C. Corbit, | 67.44 | Mary, | 45.30 | Samuel Castner, | 143.13 |
| Harriet and Hannah, | 63.29 | Mary Esther, | 42.52 | Somers, | 127.38 |
| Henry Clay, | 66.46 | Margaret, | 90.34 | Susannah & Phœbe, | 101.90 |
| Ida, | 80.12 | Mary Jane, | 27.33 | Samuel R. Paynter, | 109.31 |
| Isaac Townsend, | 123.05 | Margetta, | 22.00 | S. H. Gillingham, | 51.15 |
| Indiana, | 85.47 | Martin, | 49.52 | Signet, | 64.69 |
| Increase, | 135.43 | Ninetta, | 119.92 | Sally Ann, | 30.60 |
| Ino, | 23.59 | Ninetta, | 128.45 | Star, | 20.34 |
| Isaac Tunnell, | 98.06 | North Carolina, | 116.71 | Sarah Churchman, | 139.39 |
| John M'Crea, | 124.28 | News, | 118.15 | Samuel Smith, | 98.76 |
| J. & W. Errickson, | 173.17 | Northampton, | 47.80 | Swan, | 23.96 |
| Jonath. Wainwright, | 147.68 | New Zealand, | 119.41 | Spray, | 37.12 |
| John M'Cling, | 120.10 | N. L. M'Cready, | 129.10 | Singe Cat, | 26.80 |
| Joseph Stewart, | 73.89 | Nameoka, | 51.60 | Sarah Ann, | 34.46 |
| James W. Caldwell, | 54.70 | Orator, | 71.80 | Squire & Brothers, | 163.72 |
| James P. Lofland, | 127.80 | Osceola, | 127.37 | Talbot, | 57.28 |
| John and Ann, | 22.34 | Oceana, | 40.43 | Theodore, | 84.52 |
| Joseph Rushling, | 111.44 | Odd Fellow, | 81.86 | Trapper, | 21.08 |
| J. R. Thompson, | 54.07 | Paragon, | 117.83 | Thora, | 140.86 |
| Joseph Lybrand, | 109.34 | Palestine, | 131.12 | Temperance, | 52.15 |
| Joseph Brown, | 129.75 | Pennsylvania, | 136.03 | Thos. A. Morgan, | 138.08 |
| John Stull, | 105.73 | Pilot, | 117.61 | United States, | 24.69 |
| John Randolph, | 96.35 | Pampero, | 195.57 | Union, | 87.90 |
| James F. Bertine, | 150.00 | Post Boy, | 24.60 | Wm. Spear, | 128.35 |
| John Moore, | 33.31 | Peytona, | 29.35 | Wm. J. Watson, | 151.80 |
| Lewis Puleskie, | 47.14 | P. B. Savery, | 127.28 | Wm. D. Waples, | 56.48 |
| Lady of the Lake, | 43.11 | Pacific, | 27.30 | Wm. Penn, | 30.74 |
| La Fayette, | 48.76 | Patriot, | 71.38 | Wm. Smith, | 22.88 |
| La Grange, | 134.42 | Peter D. Lambert, | 23.45 | Wm. Travers, | 25.56 |
| Louisa, | 67.67 | Peter Kern, | 44.42 | Wood Duck, | 20.45 |
| Lois, | 74.02 | R. Tomlin, | 124.00 | W. H. Gatzmer, | 74.86 |
| Liberty, | 38.67 | Roanoke, | 179.75 | William & Elizabeth, | 47.51 |
| Lea, | 31.32 | Republican, | 87.31 | Wm. H. Barker, | 38.20 |
| Lark, | 73.47 | Rynear Williams, | 71.89 | Wm. J. B. Andrews, | 65.23 |
| Leader, | 127.13 | Rush, | 46.79 | William, | 20.48 |
| Lygonia, | 147.78 | Robert P. Glover, | 83.49 | Young Mechanic, | 24.45 |

*Sloops.*

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Avalinda, | 21.87 | Canton, | 43.47 | Friendship, | 59.47 |
| Abigail and Keziah, | 42.32 | Dolphin, | 32.37 | Fourth of July, | 42.71 |
| Asa Gibbs, | 35.61 | Democrat, | 43.31 | Fashion, | 42.52 |
| Abigail, | 39.42 | De Witt Clinton, | 29.61 | Franklin W. Stoy, | 37.15 |
| Algonquin, | 40.17 | Delaware, | 45.03 | Frances Jane, | 20.65 |
| Ann Eliza, | 41.07 | Exchange, | 30.28 | Franklin, | 22.53 |
| Ariel, | 42.66 | Ellen Z., | 46.69 | Frances, | 32.76 |
| Anna and Mary Ann, | 49.49 | Exchange, | 35.19 | Gen. Jackson, | 60.61 |
| Boxer, | 41.63 | Enterprise, | 37.00 | Gen. Bloomfield, | 29.80 |
| Bonnets of Blue, | 41.13 | Eliza M'Donald, | 38.71 | Gardiner, | 34.63 |
| Brandywine, | 38.25 | Elizabeth, | 34.60 | Great Western, | 29.17 |
| Col. S. H. Coates, | 31.33 | Eagle, | 35.26 | Gleaner, | 35.93 |
| Cleopatra, | 20.54 | Elizabeth Beatty, | 32.15 | George Washington, | 45.27 |
| Cedarville, | 37.92 | Fame, | 41.71 | Gen. Harrison, | 36.87 |
| Cultivator, | 47.07 | Friendship, | 21.31 | Good Friends, | 61.11 |
| Centurion, | 26.76 | Fair Trader, | 42.65 | Harriet, | 53.00 |
| Chrisinda, | 46.17 | French Creek, | 43.69 | Hunter, | 38.91 |
| Countess, | 25.09 | Farmer, | 32.47 | Hannah and Ellen, | 45.53 |

| Names. | Tons. | Names. | Tons. | Names. | Tons. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Herald, | 35.26 | Matilda and Louisa, | 53.93 | Sailor, | 37.41 |
| Hartford, | 33.62 | Mary Smith, | 36.13 | Susan Eliza, | 38.80 |
| Henry Clay, | 29.29 | Martha, | 41.25 | Stafford, | 57.26 |
| Hannah and Isabella, | 48.27 | Miller, | 37.70 | Seven Brothers, | 46.62 |
| Hope, | 30.90 | Mohawk, | 39.77 | Sarah Jane, | 48.43 |
| Henry, | 30.65 | Mariner, | 21.64 | Swan, | 41.89 |
| Harmony, | 43.66 | Margaret, | 26.45 | Sarah Ann, | 29.60 |
| Henry Hoover, | 41.32 | Martin Van Buren, | 27.49 | Sarah Ann, | 23.46 |
| Hornet, | 41.83 | Native A., | 41.53 | Sarah, | 28.79 |
| Isabella, | 40.77 | Native American, | 35.04 | Samuel Price, | 46.34 |
| Industry, | 43.67 | New Jersey, | 32.81 | Sarah and Mary, | 36.48 |
| Indiana, | 54.85 | New Jersey, | 50.65 | Samuel P. Chew, | 31.38 |
| Indian, | 58.85 | Ohio, | 20.20 | Swiftsure, | 26.46 |
| Isaac Jones, | 36.00 | President, | 47.06 | Statira, | 40.80 |
| John L., | 43.81 | Pennsylvania, | 40.47 | S. Sillyman, | 34.89 |
| Jane, | 34.91 | Paul Jones, | 35.35 | Samuel L. Southard, | 57.27 |
| Jersey Lass, | 26.72 | Prosperity, | 39.94 | Superior, | 39.94 |
| John Cox, | 33.04 | Pennsylvania, | 36.82 | Three Sisters, | 40.31 |
| John E. Clyde, | 34.79 | Perseverance, | 49.27 | Two Cousins, | 57.28 |
| John Sergeant, | 59.05 | Patrick Henry, | 30.35 | Thomas Davis, | 56.78 |
| Jane and Rachael, | 53.03 | Planter, | 26.60 | Traveller, | 40.28 |
| Johnson, | 66.30 | Port Kennedy, | 29.06 | Trader, | 50.62 |
| Jonas Preston, | 44.42 | Relief, | 46.86 | Tacy & Grace, | 39.06 |
| James and Alfred, | 36.57 | Rhoda, | 36.74 | Union, | 32.13 |
| Lydia Ford, | 37.91 | Robinson, | 31.13 | Union, | 60.93 |
| Little James, | 30.70 | Rebecca and Hannah, | 31.90 | Victory, | 35.00 |
| Lady Jackson, | 48.27 | Robert Morris, | 42.28 | Vandalia, | 33.57 |
| Lydia Godfrey, | 46.09 | Replenish, | 57.79 | William and John, | 23.15 |
| Lima, | 25.27 | Rachael and Sally, | 41.40 | William Penn, | 28.63 |
| Mary Virginia, | 46.50 | R. M. Johnson, | 48.19 | Wave, | 56.27 |
| Mary and Elenor, | 39.37 | Rose in Bloom, | 25.85 | Wm. M'Fadden, | 33.91 |
| Mary Ann Gill, | 33.15 | Sarah Hay, | 54.33 | Yankee, | 50.14 |

*Steamers.*

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A, | 36.66 | Ericsson, | 74.20 | Proprietor, | 172.74 |
| Ashland, | 182.37 | Experiment, | 60.00 | Pennsylvania, | 299.36 |
| B, | 74.51 | Hudson, | 170.85 | Pioneer, | 53.80 |
| Bolivar, | 158.47 | John Jay, | 131.82 | Portsmouth, | 215.87 |
| Barclay, | 99.31 | James Cage, | 115.31 | Pennsylvania, | 202.11 |
| Baltimore, | 105.06 | John Smith, | 35.80 | Rockland, | 144.70 |
| Balloon, | 204.53 | Kingston, | 218.15 | Robert Wharton, | 88.52 |
| Conestoga, | 79.90 | Napoleon, | 169.39 | Robert F. Stockton, | 191.08 |
| Col. John Stevens, | 155.66 | New Jersey, | 58.48 | Superior, | 194.63 |
| Constitution, | 428.19 | New Jersey, | 95.19 | Sun, | 232.33 |
| Cumberland, | 68.63 | New Jersey, | 530.53 | Sydney, | 244.46 |
| Delaware, | 206.82 | Ocean, | 58.48 | Virginia, | 350.23 |
| Enterprise, | 75.81 | Phila. Ice-boat, | 526.50 | Wilmon Whilldin, | 241.65 |
| Express, | 106.20 | | | | |

## EXPORTS FROM NEW ORLEANS.

Mr. Whitehead, of the custom-house at New Orleans, the gentleman who, for many years, has had charge of the export records, has furnished the Price Current, Commercial Intelligencer, etc., of that city, with the following statement of the value of exports from that port, cleared at the custom-house during each month for three years—viz.—1843, 1844, and 1845—with the total for each, and showing a grand total for the three years, of $146,578,569. It will be seen that the total exports of 1844 exceed those of 1845 in the sum of $6,329,101.—This results from the fact that the navigation of the interior rivers was obstructed by low waters or ice during some three months of the latter year, while in 1844, there was scarcely any interruption to the intercourse with the markets of the West. This statement, however, it may be remarked, does not embrace the entire

value of the exports from the port of New Orleans, as a large amount is shipped to the neighboring states of Florida and Alabama, without being cleared at the custom-house.

STATEMENT OF THE VALUE OF EXPORTS CLEARED AT THE CUSTOM-HOUSE, NEW ORLEANS, FOR THE THREE PAST YEARS.

| | 1843. | 1844. | 1845. |
|---|---|---|---|
| January, | $5,277,144 | $6,179,190 | $3,953,108 |
| February, | 5,748,971 | 6,106,525 | 6,436,049 |
| March, | 4,503,054 | 7,108,786 | 5,592,236 |
| April, | 5,488,070 | 7,390,408 | 6,416,729 |
| May, | 4,982,490 | 6,733,197 | 4,938,062 |
| June, | 4,647,801 | 4,415,140 | 3,125,199 |
| July, | 3,466,068 | 3,156,216 | 2,073,895 |
| August, | 1,281,671 | 1,085,310 | 1,016,966 |
| September, | 967,722 | 1,072,879 | 1,279,149 |
| October, | 1,692,405 | 1,797,045 | 2,708,041 |
| November, | 3,283,964 | 2,790,216 | 5,406,278 |
| December, | 4,187,494 | 5,855,566 | 4,415,595 |
| | $45,526,854 | $53,690,468 | $47,361,307 |
| Grand total for three years, | | | 146,578,569. |

## SUGAR CROP OF LOUISIANA FOR 1845.

Mr. P. A. Champomier has published his annual statement of the sugar crop of Louisiana. It is a neat pamphlet of some thirty-seven pages, containing the name of every sugar planter in the state, the product of each plantation, and much other matter, which renders it a work of great value to all interested in the growth and consumption of this important staple of Louisiana. After enumerating the different plantations, with the product of each, Mr. C. furnishes the following interesting statement:—

| Names of Parishes. | No. of Planters. | No. of Sugar Houses. | No. of Steam Power. | No. of Horse Power. | No. of hhds. Sugar. | No. of 1000 lbs. nett. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Point Coupee, | 51 | 40 | 34 | 6 | 1,206 | 1,259 |
| West Baton Rouge, | 78 | 52 | 39 | 13 | 4,961 | 5,918 |
| East Baton Rouge, | 54 | 35 | 16 | 19 | 4,222 | 4,856 |
| Iberville, | 194 | 116 | 74 | 42 | 15,624 | 17,477 |
| Ascension, | 96 | 63 | 42 | 21 | 16,906 | 19,119 |
| St. James, | 197 | 81 | 53 | 28 | 17,515 | 19,390 |
| St. John the Baptist, | 145 | 61 | 33 | 28 | 9,909 | 10,446 |
| St. Charles, | 94 | 39 | 34 | 5 | 10,650 | 11,145 |
| Jefferson, | 49 | 29 | 29 | ... | 7,541 | 8,185 |
| Orleans and St. Bernard, | 47 | 26 | 22 | 4 | 5,670 | 6,191 |
| Plaquemines, | 77 | 45 | 33 | 12 | 11,321 | 12,578 |
| Assumption, Bayou Lafourche, | 206 | 137 | 41 | 96 | 12,076 | 13,487 |
| Lafourche Interior, | 164 | 98 | 33 | 65 | 11,116 | 12,144 |
| Terrebonne, | 104 | 78 | 42 | 36 | 12,080 | 13,509 |
| St. Mary, Attakapas, | 283 | 179 | 80 | 99 | 24,722 | 29,194 |
| St. Martin, do. | 115 | 69 | 9 | 60 | 5,246 | 6,221 |
| Vermillion, do. | 33 | 19 | 1 | 18 | 1,176 | 1,326 |
| Lafayette, do. | 11 | 7 | ... | 7 | 365 | 403 |
| St. Landry, Opelousas, | 37 | 26 | 5 | 21 | 1,352 | 1,558 |
| Calcassieu, do. | 11 | 11 | 1 | 10 | 119 | 119 |
| Sundries and Molasses Sugar, | ... | ... | ... | ... | 3,000 | 3,000 |
| Cistern Sugar, | ... | ... | ... | ... | 9,873 | 9,873 |
| Avoyelles, Red River, | 8 | 7 | 2 | 5 | ..... | ..... |
| Rapides, do. | 19 | 18 | 5 | 13 | ..... | ..... |
| Catahoula, do. | 1 | 1 | ... | 1 | ..... | ..... |
| Concordia, do. | 1 | 1 | ... | 1 | ..... | ..... |
| West Feliciana, Mississippi river, | 2 | 2 | 2 | ... | ..... | ..... |
| Total, | 2,077 | 1,240 | 630 | 610 | 186,650 | 207,337 |

# RAILROAD STATISTICS.

## PROGRESS OF RAILROADS IN GEORGIA.

The Milledgeville Journal gives the following gratifying account of the enterprise which the state of Georgia has, within the last two years, manifested in her internal improvements:—

OF THE RAILROADS ALREADY FINISHED.

| | |
|---|---|
| Central Railroad, from Savannah to Macon, | 192 miles. |
| Georgia Railroad, from Augusta to Atlanta, | 170 " |
| Western and Atlantic Railroad, from Atlanta to Dawsonville, | 80 " |
| Total, | 442 " |

TO BE FINISHED IN SIX, AND LESS THAN TWELVE MONTHS.

| | |
|---|---|
| Macon and Western Railroad, from Macon to Atlanta, | 101 miles. |
| Western and Atlantic Railroad, from Dawsonville to Cross Plains, | 22 " |
| | 123 " |
| Already finished, as above, | 442 " |
| Total, | 565 " |

It should be stated that the Macon and Western Railroad has been in operation several years, for the distance of fifty-nine miles, and is now undergoing thorough repair, in the hands of a new and strong company.

The Macon and Western Railroad is virtually an extension of the Central Railroad. Atlanta is the common point at which the Georgia Railroad, and the Macon and Western Railroad, terminate. The Western and Atlantic Railroad is the extension of both to the westward; and when it reaches Cross Plains, the works of internal improvement in the state will be completed within fifteen miles of the southern boundary of the state of Tennessee.

## LITTLE MIAMI RAILROAD, OHIO.

The third annual report of this road has been published. It shows the cost and condition of the road up to December, 1845. The length of the road now in use, from Cincinnati to Xenia, is 65¼ miles—the distance to be completed from Xenia to Springfield, where it will connect with the Mad River and Lake Erie Road, is 18¾ miles—or its entire length will be 84 miles—and its distance to the Lake of Sandusky, 214 miles. The total amount received for passengers, from December 1, 1844, to November 31, 1845, was $25,394 82; and for freight, during the same time, $20,932 76. Total, for freight and passengers, $46,327 58. The expenditures amounted to $30,840 89; leaving a profit, over current expenses, of $15,486 69. The total expense of construction, &c., thus far, has been $937,367.

The following is a statement of the principal articles of produce transported on the Little Miami Road, for the year ending December 1st:—

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Apples, clover-seed, & eggs, bbls. | 553 | Butter, ..... lbs. | 26,705 |
| Beef, pork, and lard, | 1,971 | Castings, | 181,985 |
| Molasses, oil, vinegar and cider, | 658 | Hay, | 118,612 |
| Whiskey, | 19,582 | Lumber, M. feet, B. M., | 289,763 |
| Wheat, and buckwheat flour, | 25,147 | Hoop-poles and staves, M. | 276,919 |
| Lime, | 1,054 | Shingles, | 740,550 |
| Salt, | 3,031 | Malt, ..... sacks | 2,222 |
| Empty barrels and kegs, | 2,367 | Barley and oats, bush. | 5,093 |
| Merchandise, sundries, etc., lbs. | 1,788,427 | Corn, wheat, and rye, | 103,811 |
| Iron and nails, | 166,673 | Potatoes and turnips, | 2,774 |
| Pork, and bulk meat, | 624,557 | Coal, | 41,098 |
| Paper and rags, | 241,553 | Live hogs, | 4,096 |

# NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

## PENANG HARBOR.

SINGAPORE, Dec. 3, 1845.—Vessels approaching the island from the southward, intending to enter the harbor of Penang, should be guided by the following directions:

1. There are two lines of beacons; those on the east side, five in number, painted white, in the form of a cross; and those on the west side, three in number, painted red, in the form of a triangle.

2. The first or southernmost white cross beacon is visible from three to four miles, bearing E. ¼ N. from the S. end of Saddle Island, and SSE. from the middle of Pulo Rymo, distance one mile.

3. Vessels will be safe in working if they do not stand to the eastward of the white cross beacons.

4. The southern red triangle beacon is off the north end of Pulo Jerajah, and after having passed it care must be taken to keep more to the east side of the channel to avoid a small patch, with 2½ fathoms low water, bearing nearly NNE. about quarter of a mile.

5. With this exception, between the first and second red triangle beacons, all vessels can safely work in, if they never go to the eastward of the white cross beacons, or to the westward of the red triangle beacons; each beacon is placed on projecting spits of sand or mud, in two fathoms low water, spring tides.

## SHOAL IN LINE WITH PULO JANANG.

We copy the subjoined from the Singapore Free Press: "The following extract of a letter, from Mr. Alexander Rodger, of the barque Ellen, from China for London, dated, off Anjer, Nov. 17, 1845, contains information of the existence of a shoal in a part of the sea which on the charts appears to be free from anything of the kind. The Dutch charts lately published, may, perhaps, notice it:

"'On the morning of the 6th inst. (6h. 30m. A.M.) we were so unfortunate as to discover a shoal by touching it. She only struck once, and went over the rock without stopping, but that one blow took away the after part of the false keel, and nearly unshipped the rudder. It was a fine morning, wind light at SSW., and sea smooth, and watch washing decks, and in a place where no shoal is laid down in the latest published charts by Horsburgh. It lies in lat. 0. 40. N., lon. 107. 34. E., the peak of the highest Tamblian, N. 1 E., distant 20 miles, and in a line with Pulo Janang, distant 10 miles. Very soon after, I went in the boat, with three men, and examined the shoal, and found it to be about 100 yards square, and all sharp-pointed rocks, from five fathoms to nine feet, which was the least water; but great part of it had only fifteen to eighteen feet, and in some places twelve feet, and in one place nine feet over it. Had the Ellen got on the middle of the shoal, she would have laid there, and you might have had a visit of us in our boats. There were nineteen to twenty-one fathoms close to and all around it.'"

## LIGHTS AT THE ENTRANCE OF THE ROADS OF MORLAIX.

From the 1st of December, 1846, the direction of the eastern channel of the roads of Morlaix, (called the channel of Treguier,) will be indicated after dark by two lights, which will be lighted, the first on Ile Noire, and the second on the Tour de la Lande.

The following statement makes known the geographical position, character, and bearing of the new lights:

1. *Light of Ile Noire.*—A light varied every two minutes by flashes, preceded and followed by short eclipses. Lat. 48. 40. 23., lon. 6. 12. 48. Elevation, 14 metres above the highest tides, and may be seen at a distance of 10 marine miles.

2. *Light of the Tour de la Lande.*—Fixed Light. Lat. 43. 38. 14., lon. 6. 13. 23. Elevation of the light above the surface, 17 metres; above the sea, 87 metres; to be seen at a distance of 12 miles.

N. B.—Besides these two lights, which, brought into one, indicate the position of the eastern channel of the roads of Morlaix, a small fixed light, to be seen at the distance of one marine mile, will be exhibited at the southern side of the Castle du Taureau, (750 metres to the N. 60 W. of the Ile Noire,) to light the anchorage of the northern part of roads.

# COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

## REGULATIONS OF THE TOBACCO TRADE IN NEW ORLEANS.

The following arrangement has been agreed upon between the parties interested in the tobacco trade of New Orleans:—

The committee, appointed by the tobacco factors, assembled at the counting-house of Messrs. Fellowes, Johnson & Co., on the evening of the 3d of March, 1846, to report some plan by which the present system of inspecting, weighing, coopering, &c., of tobacco can be so guarded as to remedy the evils complained of by the purchasers of tobacco in this market, have had the subject under serious consideration, and beg leave respectfully to report:

That your committee are fully persuaded that great evils do exist under the present loose system of conducting the trade in New Orleans; that the door is open to the perpetration of great frauds, both upon the buyer and seller of tobacco; that the complaints made by the buyers have too much foundation in truth; that justice to the buyers, to our own character as merchants, to the character of the New Orleans market, as well as the interests of our country correspondents, calls loudly upon us to do all in our power to prevent the frauds complained of.

With this view, in the absence of the requisite legal enactments, your committee cannot recommend any means promising greater efficacy than the regulations herein proposed—

1st. It shall be required of the inspectors to draw the samples themselves, or cause it to be done by a person under their control, who shall not be in any way connected with the warehouses; and that the tobacco shall be broken in four places, and an equal proportion from each break shall be used in making up the sample.

2d. It shall be required of them, in making up the sample, that the tape or twine used, shall pass through the hands of the tobacco, and a seal of wax shall be put upon each sample, with the initials of the inspectors; and that all marks upon the sample card shall be with ink.

3d. A weigher shall be appointed for each tobacco warehouse in the city, who shall be a sworn officer, and shall give bond and security, in the sum of five thousand dollars, for the faithful performance of his duties.

4th. He shall be present at every inspection in the warehouse where he may be located; he shall weigh each cask after it is taken off the tobacco, and mark the weight thereon; he shall return the cask to the tobacco from which it came, and after it has been coopered, he shall weigh the hhd. of tobacco and mark the weight on the same.

5th. He shall see that every hhd. is coopered in a proper manner, either under a screw or a lever, and that all the loose tobacco be put back into the hhd. from which it came; and that every hhd. is put under a sufficient pressure to close the breaks caused by inspecting, sufficiently to prevent injury from mould or dampness.

6th. He shall certify to the gross and tare weights upon the certificates issued by the warehouses, and shall countersign the same. He shall superintend the delivery of all tobacco from the warehouses when called by the holders of the certificates, and shall be responsible for all errors of delivery. He shall see that all tobacco shall be coopered up the same day that it is opened, and that before sundown.

7th. The weigher shall furnish his own laborers to weigh the casks, place them back on the tobacco, and weigh the hogshead of tobacco.

8th. Either buyer or seller shall have the privilege of requiring the weigher to re-weigh any tobacco when called on previous to or at the time of delivery; and if the certified weights (making due allowance for shrinkage) shall be found correct, he shall be paid his usual fee by the party requiring the service—if otherwise, he shall not be paid, but held responsible for the error. But it is distinctly understood that his responsibility ceases when the tobacco leaves the warehouse.

9th. The compensation of the weigher shall be twenty-five cents per hogshead, which shall be deducted from the charges now allowed to the warehouses; and he shall have the privilege of the assistance of deputies, but shall be held responsible for their acts.

10th. The weigher shall remain in office twelve months, unless for misdemeanor the Board of the Tobacco Trade shall see proper to remove him.

11th. A Board shall be appointed, to be denominated "The Board of the Tobacco Trade," consisting of six members—three to be chosen by the buyers and three by the factors—which board shall have the power of appointing all tobacco weighers, and to

which all difficulties arising in the trade shall be referred. Four members shall constitute a quorum to transact business.

12th. Warehouse-keepers shall without delay break out and deliver all tobacco when called on by the holders of the certificates.

13th. No one shall have the privilege of choosing inspectors, but it shall be left optional with themselves to allot the duty to any two of their number.

# MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

## MERCANTILE LIBRARY ASSOCIATION OF MONTREAL.

We have received from the President and Directors of this Institution, a copy of their fifth annual report; a plain, business-like document. We are pleased to learn that the directors have good ground to look forward with confidence, not merely to its continuance, but to a constantly advancing measure of prosperity and usefulness. It appears that ninety-seven volumes have been added to the library, by donation, during the past year, and that the library now comprises 3,934 volumes. The reading-room is supplied with two reviews, fourteen monthly magazines, and forty-four newspapers. Of the fourteen monthlies but two are from the United States—the Merchants' Magazine, and the Journal of the American Temperance Union. A course of lectures was delivered during the past season. At the fourth annual meeting a prize was offered for the best essay on the "Advantages to a Commercial Man of a Literary Education." There were, however, but few competitors for the prize, which was unanimously awarded to Mr. J. H. Winn, the Corresponding Secretary of the Association. The subject adopted for the prize essay is, "Commerce; its objects and history." The plan pursued by this association, of offering prizes for the best essay on some commercial subject, is a good one, and we hope to see it adopted by similar institutions in the United States. The list of members, presents, in comparison with former reports, very gratifying evidence of a progressive increase. The present number is 469; last year it was 392, and the previous year 319. The Board of Directors conclude their report by urging the members to avail themselves of the means of improvement offered through the association; so that they may thus gather the information, and lay the foundation of "that intelligence, uprightness and honor, which characterise British merchants."

## ABOLITION OF IMPRISONMENT FOR DEBT IN NEW SOUTH WALES.

The friends of humanity, and a liberal and enlightened policy everywhere, will be gratified in reading the following statement, which we copy from the "Colonial Times:"

"The British and colonial press has been united in awarding to the Legislative Council of New South Wales the merit of being the first legislature in the British dominions which had the fortitude to wipe away from the statute-book that most monstrous legacy of the barbarous ages—imprisonment for debt. In these commendations we most heartily join; indeed, we consider the fact of his having been the member at whose more immediate instance this admirable step was taken, the brightest feather in Mr. Lowe's cap; but, however heartily we approve of this measure, we cannot allow it to be assumed that the Legislative Council of New South Wales was the first to lead in the matter, for it is a highly interesting fact, that, so long ago as the year 1699, the same step was taken, and on precisely the same principles, by the then parliament of New Caledonia, better known probably to our readers as the ill-fated Scotch colony on the Isthmus of Darien. The following, being No. 27, of the rules of ordinances for the good government of the colony, promulgated by the colonial parliament, was the law which abolished imprisonment for debt: 'All lands, goods, debts, and other effects, except the working tools of a mechanic, the books of a student, or man of reading, and the wearing clothes of any person,) shall in the most ready manner be subject to the just and equal satisfaction of debts; but the person of a free man shall not, in any sort, be liable to arrests, imprisonment, or other restraints whatsoever, for or by reason of debt, unless there shall be fraud first proved upon him.'"

## NOTE TO "THE CENSUS OF THE UNITED STATES OF 1850,"

PUBLISHED IN THIS MAGAZINE, IN FEBRUARY, 1846.

We cheerfully give place to the annexed communication from Thomas Gregg, Esq., of Warsaw, Illinois. It will be seen that the article which Mr. G. refers to, was from the pen of William Kirkland, Esq., and that his name is given in the table of contents as the author. It has been our endeavor from the start, to avoid party politics, but, at the same time, to let our correspondents express their views, if done courteously and in good taste, with perfect freedom. The following extract from our prospectus, clearly defines the course we aim to pursue in the management of this Magazine:—

"It has been, and will continue to be, the aim of the Editor and Proprietor of the MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE, to avoid everything of a party, political, or sectional bias or bearing, in the conduct of the work—opening its pages to the free and fair discussion of antagonistic doctrines connected with the great interests of Commerce, Agriculture, Manufactures, and the Currency."

WARSAW, Illinois, March 20, 1846.

*To the Editor of the Merchants' Magazine:*

SIR—In the February number of your valuable periodical, in the article on the Census of 1850, page 116-17, the following paragraph occurs:

"That the spirit of unadulterated democracy—understanding by this term something far other than the enlightened freedom which is contemplated by the constitution—is exceedingly prevalent in that wide region called the West, is but too clearly proved by the Mormon contests. This spirit, fully received, demands that the will of the people, to-day, should be the law for to-day, in spite of any musty, antiquated records, called laws, and the like, which are merely the opinions of people who lived years ago, and, like the precepts of our religion, well enough for those times, but not at all adapted to ours. Hence, the undisguised murder of Smith, with the absolute impunity of the murderers, notwithstanding the governor's pledge of honor for his safety, and his strenuous efforts to bring the perpetrators to justice. The people of Illinois have gone on to burn out a population of fifteen or twenty thousand people, consuming house after house, with systematic deliberation, in order to rid themselves of a portion of the people whom they do not like; and there is no power in the state to stop them. The constitution, the laws, and the magistrates, are as if they were not. The sovereign will of the people—that is, their will for to-day—is not to be resisted. Such is the actual construction of the doctrine of majorities in the second state of the West."

Now, it is not my intention or desire to enter into any controversy with the author of the above paragraph; neither is your journal the proper medium for such a controversy. But I think that such a paragraph requires notice and correction. In a periodical such as yours, which will find its way into hundreds of public and private libraries, and descend to posterity, a chronicle of the present time, it is highly necessary that its statements should approximate, as nearly as may be, to the truth. Without supposing that the writer committed an intentional error, I shall now proceed to show that, in point of fact, the above paragraph is extremely deficient.

That the "construction of the doctrine of majorities," is different in this state from what it is in the state of New York, or any other state of the Union, either in theory or practice, I have not been able to perceive, after a residence here of near ten years. That the citizens of this state are as law-abiding, and possess as much "enlightened freedom," as those of some of the older states, I am not prepared to say; but I will say, that if proof to the contrary is to be found in the frequent instances of mob violence, or, as our author has it, "the manifestations of the will of the people," New York, at least, has little cause to rebuke us. Neither can the Mormon difficulties furnish any proof of the correctness of his position: for, it is my candid conviction—and this opinion, I *know*, is acquiesced in by hundreds of as good citizens as this or any other state can boast—that Mormon aggression could not have been carried to a similar extent in any state of this Union, and have been more peaceably, more patiently, endured by her citizens. Human nature is about the same in all the states. There have been too many instances in which the supremacy of the law and of the constitution has been trampled under foot, in all the states; and it is one of the most alarming evils of the times. But I am not willing that the people of this state, and of this section of the state, should be thus made scape-goats for the sins of the whole people. Were the facts as the writer states them, they would no more establish the truth of his position, than that the flour riots in your city, the destruction of the Ursuline Convent at Boston, or the anti-rent troubles in the interior of New York, prove that the "spirit of unadulterated democracy is very prevalent in that wide region called" New York and New England.

But Mr. Kirkland has been misinformed of the events which have taken place in "the second state of the West." Instead of the people of Illinois "burning out fifteen or twenty thousand people, consuming house after house with systematic deliberation," the Mormons themselves only claim to have lost seventy-five to a hundred houses, and these are known to include out-houses and stables. The real loss is probably forty houses, es-

timated at, say $5,000; while nineteen-twentieths of those who were thus burnt out, remained in the country. The "fifteen or twenty thousand people," so inhumanly burnt out of house and home, would include all of the Mormons in this section of the state; and they were all, until very lately, peaceably enjoying themselves, in their peculiar way, in the city of Nauvoo and its environs. This Spring, however, a small portion of them have commenced their long-talked of exode to the regions beyond the Rocky Mountains.

The "absolute impunity" of the murderers of Smith, is not quite so fabulous as the "fifteen or twenty thousand" sufferers by arson, for they are yet at large. Some eight or ten individuals were, however, indicted for the murder, and tried by an impartial jury, and acquitted for want of sufficient evidence.

In their difficulties with the Mormons, I do not pretend that the people of Illinois have done no wrong. That they have done much wrong, I am sorry to be compelled to admit. They do not claim—nor do I for them—exemption from human frailty. But, as their acts are to meet with the approval or the condemnation of the world, they desire that those acts shall be correctly and impartially stated. That desire is both natural and just.

Mr. Editor, I have thought thus much necessary, if not in justification, at least, in vindication and explanation of what the people of Illinois have done. I have purposely avoided adverting to the causes of their conduct. Those causes, and their consequences, will, probably, be fully and impartially laid before the public, at no distant day.

Very respectfully, yours, &c.

THOMAS GREGG.

FREEMAN HUNT, Esq.

## FAIRBANKS' PLATFORM SCALES.

It is not often that we are induced to laud an article of trade, and we never do, unless perfectly satisfied that we are commending something that is useful. We cannot consent to gratify the cupidity of an individual, at the risk of imposing upon the confidence of thousands of our readers who rely upon the honesty of our statements, if not in the infallibility of our judgment. That great improvements have been made, within a few years, in the instruments for weighing merchandise, is a fact familiar to business men. The antique, clumsy, and inaccurate methods of weighing, have given way to the inventions of American mechanical skill, and the utmost precision has been attained. A variety of Platform Balances are manufactured and used, which cannot be relied on for any considerable degree of accuracy; so that they necessarily involve one party in pecuniary loss. It therefore affords us pleasure to refer to the Platform Scales of Mr. Fairbanks, which have been extensively used in all parts of the United States for several years, and given, as far as our knowledge extends, very general satisfaction. We purchased one of these scales three years since, and have used them constantly for weighing paper, &c.; and, for accuracy and durability, we are quite sure they have not, and perhaps cannot, be surpassed. The plan of construction is philosophical and simple. The employment of two levers, with a single beam, is certainly the most practicable, in a compound platform balance. Any increase of the number of levers, or an additional beam, renders the instrument more complicated, less precise in its operation, and more liable to derangement. These scales are used by many of the leading merchants in New York, whose written testimony, as to their superior excellence, has been freely accorded to the manufacturers.

## MERCANTILE LIBRARY ASSOCIATION OF BOSTON.

At a meeting of the Mercantile Library Association, held on Wednesday evening, April 16th, 1846, at Amory Hall, the following gentlemen were elected officers for the following year: President, Thomas J. Allen; Vice-President, Levi L. Wilcutt; Recording Secretary, Thomas H. Lord; Treasurer, Gustavus L. Branford; Directors, Charles H. Allen, George H. Briggs, James Otis, Joshua P. Bird, Henry F. Chamberlain, John Stetson, William Kemard, W. Stowell Tilton.

## FREE TRADE ASSOCIATION OF CANADA.

An association under this name has been organized in Montreal, whose object will be to "consolidate views and interest, attain unity of purpose and action, and thereby place ourselves in a position to secure the ascendancy of our principles in the commercial laws of the province. The commerce and industry of this colony, as yet in their infancy, and hitherto nourished under an unsound system of protective stimulants, will soon be left to seek out their natural channels; and fortunate will it be for our common welfare, if, by our united efforts, we now succeed in planting the principle of free trade in our commercial system. Then may we hope to make the St. Lawrence the highway for the rich products of the teeming west—to develop the vast resources of this rising colony—and to secure for her people the highest possible share of prosperity and happiness."

Having said thus much by way of explanation, the manner of accomplishing this object will be to show the amount of produce collected annually on the shores of our great inland waters, and brought to Montreal for distribution to the various markets of consumption; next, the vast quantity that passes through the Erie canal, seeking a market at New York, and other American ports; and lastly, to show that it is in the power of Canada to divert a large share of this latter trade through her own waters.

The amount of some leading articles of produce, brought by the St. Lawrence to the city of Montreal, in the year 1845, is given as follows:

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|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Pork, | bbls. | 6,109 | Wheat, | bu. | 450,209 |
| Beef, | | 723 | Other grain, | | 40,781 |
| Lard, | kgs. | 461 | Ashes, | cks. | 33,000 |
| Flour, | bbls. | 590,305 | Butter, | | 8,112 |

## ANDERSON'S TOBACCO MANUFACTORY.

In a "Complete Treatise on Tobacco," by W. F. J. Thiers, M. D., embracing the report of the Secretary of the Treasury, made under a call of the House of Representatives, and a collection of facts and figures on the subject, we find an interesting letter from Mr. John Anderson, who has acquired so much celebrity for his fine cut tobacco among the "devotees of the noxious weed." Dr. Thiers, who, previous to the publication of his treatise, visited the establishment of Mr. Anderson, says, that he has effected many valuable improvements in the machinery employed in his business. The advantage of knives, propelled by steam, for the cutting of tobacco, is obvious—the revolutions being performed with perfect regularity and precision, a long silken cord is produced, which the old, laborious, but unscientific method, could not effect. The manufactory is divided into fourteen apartments, each apartment being devoted to a distinct branch of the business. I was not a little surprised on learning the amount of labor required in depriving tobacco of its impurities, preparatory to cutting and curing. Mr. A. assured me that one great reason why so much inferior tobacco is offered for sale, is owing to inattention, or want of knowledge in the preparation. Large quantities of tobacco are allowed to *ferment*, and the caloric deprives it of its odorous principle; this loss drives the unskilful to the employment of drugs, with the vain hope of restoring the aroma. We have rather condensed than quoted, as the whole passage is too long for our pages. We would add, that the distinguished chemist, Dr. Chilton, analyzed a quantity of Mr. A.'s "Fine Cut Honey Dew," and certified that he found it *pure* tobacco. When we remember what immense quantities of this kind of chewing tobacco are annually consumed, the importance of a scientific system of preparation will be at once acknowledged.

## EXTENSION OF RAILWAYS IN ENGLAND.

The extension of railways during the last three years, from 1,500 to 2,000 miles, has had the effect of increasing the average receipts per mile from about £2,800 to £3,200, and the total returns from about £2,600,000 to just £4,000,000.

# THE BOOK TRADE.

1.—*Biographies of Good Wives.* By L. Maria Child, Author of the "Mother's Book," "Letters from New York," "Flowers for Children," etc. New York: C. S. Francis & Co.

The publishers of the "Cabinet Library of Choice Prose and Poetry," have been singularly successful in the selection of works for their series. Embracing, as it does, works of the highest order of merit, and a pure and elevated moral tone, it cannot fail of securing the favor of all who desire to grow in the graces and virtues that are the chief ornaments of our nature. Of the "Good Wives" of Mrs. Child, we have no fear of saying too much. It is a good book, in the most emphatic meaning of the term; and her biographies, brief and beautiful, are marked for their faithfulness, clearness and simplicity. "If this book," says Mrs. Child, in her preface, which is modest, unassuming, and to the point, "convince one doubting individual that there really is such a thing as constant, disinterested love, which misfortune cannot intimidate, or time diminish—if it teach one mistaken votary of ambition that marriage, formed from conscientious motives, makes human life like a serene sky—if it reveal to one thoughtless wife some portion of the celestial beauty there is in a perfect union of duty and inclination—if it prevent one young heart from becoming selfish and worldly—then it has not been written in vain." We feel quite sure that no sensible, well-meaning wife or mother, can rise from its perusal without the strong impulse of goodness, an impulse that will ripen into a noble activity.

2.—*Typee: A Peep at Polynesian Life during a Four Months' Residence in the Valley of the Marquesas, with Notices of the French Occupation of Tahiti, and the Provisional Cession of the Sandwich Islands to Lord Paulet.* By Herman Melville. New York: Wiley & Putnam.

This has all the elements of a popular book—novelty, and originality of style and matter, and deep interest from first to last. The writer purports to have been a sailor in a ship cruising for whales in the South Seas, from which he escaped while among the Marquesas Islands, and for some time enjoyed the delights of the tropics in a valley whose beauty he describes in most glowing colors. The perfect *sang froid* exhibited in his intercourse with the cannibals, and ease with which he seemed to regard the delights, hopes, and fears of his Polynesian life, give a particular richness to the book. The faithfulness of the descriptions and narrative give it a peculiar charm, and few can read, without a thrill, the glowing pictures of scenery and luxuriant nature, the festivities and amusements, the heathenish rites and sacrifices, and battles, of these beautiful islands.

3.—*Scenes and Thoughts in Europe.* By an American. No. XVI., Wiley & Putnam's Library of American Books.

In this book will be found a happy balance between the scenes and thoughts. The scenes are painted with liveliness, and every mark of a fine discrimination; the thoughts are profound, noble, and clearly expressed. The author shows, likewise, the rare combination of sufficient culture in what is peculiar to Europe, to select leading points, without losing sight of minute traits of individuality, with an understanding of the genius of his own land, superior in the opportunity of development and the prophecy of progress. He is European, not in a paltry and ignorant mimicry, or a profound pleasure in the externals, of European life; but in an intelligence of the great and beautiful results of her long ages of travail and woe, results which, if inadequate to satisfy in full the wants and desires of man, he can never afford to forget, but must always know better how to prize as he advances. He is American, not in a rude uncultured lawlessness which he mistakes for freedom; not in a vain, superficial, and bustling habit of mind, but in a superiority to ancient prejudice, and in a larger sense of the substantial interests of man. The book is worthy careful perusal and consideration.

4.—*Views and Reviews in American Literature, History, and Fiction.* By W. Gilmore Simms. New York: Wiley & Putnam's Library of American Books.

This volume embraces a collection of the author's contributions to the literary periodicals of the country, north and south, written during the last fifteen years. They refer to natural objects and characteristics, and constitute a class, in themselves, illustrative of our history, our materials of art, the moral of our aims, and the true development of our genius. They show what may be done among us, and insist upon what we should do, in regard to the essential in our progress. The subjects discussed in the present series, are, Americanism in Literature, The Epochs and Events in American History, Literature and Life among American Aborigines, Daniel Boone, the first hunter of Kentucky, Cortez and the Conquest of Mexico, and the Writings of J. Fenimore Cooper.

5.—*European Agriculture and Rural Economy: From Personal Observation.* By Henry Colman. Part I. Vol. 5. Boston: A. D. Phelps.

The present part closes the first volume of this invaluable work. Five more parts, which will be included in the second volume, will comdlete the labors of Mr. Colman. Thus far, the author's observations relate chiefly to England, Scotland, and Ireland, but in future numbers, they will be extended to the French, Flemish, Swiss, German, and Italian husbandry. We intend, at our earliest convenience, to give an elaborate review of this excellent work.

6.—*History of the Great Reformation of the Sixteenth Century, in Germany and Switzerland, &c.* By J. H. Merle D'Aubigne. Vol. IV. New York: Robert Carter.

The popularity of this work has been truly remarkable, especially in England and the United States. In the two countries named, more than two hundred thousand copies are in circulation, while in France the number hardly exceeds four hundred. The worthy author has reaped very little pecuniary advantage from the work, except the voluntary and liberal presents of Mr. Carter, who had made an arrangement to pay over to the author one-half of the profits of all of the fourth edition sold in the United States, or ordered and paid for previous to the publication of any rival edition. This would have been a very handsome sum; but a rival publisher of religious books in Philadelphia steps in and turns out an edition in a few days after the appearance of Mr. Carter's, and thus deprives the author of the benefits of the contract, and the publishers of almost all profit. Mr. Carter, however, who appears to be actuated by motives not altogether selfish, will, we have no doubt, act liberally towards the author; and, on this account, we earnestly hope his edition will be more generally purchased. He has published the whole history in every variety of size, style, and price, as will be seen by the following table: Uniform with the subscribers' cheap edition in half cloth, 37½ cents; do. edition in full cloth, 50 cents; do. best edition, thick paper, in extra cloth, 75 cents; the four volumes in half cloth, $1,25; do. in full, $1.75; on fine thick paper, extra cloth, new type, $2,50; in one 8vo. volume, full cloth, same type without spacing, $1,00; the fourth volume 8vo., separate, paper cover, do. 25 cents. The fourth volume contains the most important epochs of the Reformation on the Continent; such as the Two Diets of Spires, 1526 and 1529, the latter celebrated for the great Protest of the Reformed States; the conference at Marburg between the Swiss and German Reformers; the Augsburgh Confession; the progress of the Gospel in Switzerland, terminating with the catastrophe at Cappel, in which Zwingle was slain, and the death of Œcolampadius.

7.—*Sacred Philosophy of the Seasons; illustrating the Perfections of God in the Phenomena of the Year.* By the Rev. Henry Duncan, D.D., Rothwell Spring. New York: Robert Carter.

This is the first of a series of four volumes devoted to the seasons of the year. There is a chapter for every day in the season of Spring, relating to a distinct subject, the object of which is to demonstrate the existence and the attributes of God, in the various phenomena of the revolving year. Each volume contains an argument complete in itself, and peculiar to the season of which it treats. The present exhibits proofs of the Divine agency in the reproductive powers and principles of creative things, with reference to the quality of the atmosphere, the diffusion of light and heat, the deposition and distribution of moisture, the properties of the soil, the nature of the living principle, the development of seeds and plants, the animal structure and instincts, &c. A similar arrangement is adopted in the other volumes devoted to the other seasons of the year. The variety of knowledge which it embraces, is well calculated to awaken and gratify the curiosity of the young, while it is also interesting to maturer years. Although it is not without its defects, it is, on the whole, a work which instructs by its multitude of facts, and which incites to reflection and further study, by its still greater multitude of suggestions.

8.—*The Christian Ministry; with an Inquiry into the Causes of its Inefficiency.* By the Rev. Charles Bridges, A.M., Rector of Old Newton, Suffolk, and author of "An Exposition of Psalm CXIX." From the Sixth London Edition. New York: Robert Carter.

This is a large octavo volume, of nearly five hundred pages; and is particularly intended for the use of the clerical profession. The author is an earnest and devoted member of what would be termed the Evangelical branch of the Church of England, and though he has had special regard to the Establishment, yet "he would be sorry to refuse a cordial admission, and to neglect a diligent improvement of the acknowledged excellencies of the honored men of God in other communions." The work is written in a strong and vigorous style.

9.—*Solace for Bereaved Parents: or Infants Die to Live: with an Historical Account of Infant Salvation; also, very full Selections from various Authors, in Prose and Poetry.* By the Rev. Thomas Smith, D. D. New York: Robert Carter.

We have here a volume of three hundred pages, devoted exclusively to the subject of infant salvation, and the comfort of bereaved parents. The author maintains that the doctrine of infant damnation is not peculiar to the Calvinists; but, on the contrary, that they were foremost in repudiating it. But by far the larger portion of the volume is made up of poems and prose extracts from eminent authors of all sects and no sects. These are appropriate, and selected with correct taste, and good judgment.

10.—*The Fruit Culturist: adapted to the Climate of the United States; containing Directions for Pruning Young Trees in the Nursery, and for the Management of the Orchard and Fruit Garden.* By John J. Thomas. New York: Mark H. Newman.

The object of this work is not only to furnish useful directions to those who may be little acquainted with the management of fruit-trees, but to promote the culture of the best varieties, and to improve their treatment so as to secure excellence and productiveness in a more eminent degree than is usually attained. So far as we are capable of judging, we should think it well calculated to answer these objects.

11.—*A First Latin Book.* By THOMAS KERCHEVER ARNOLD, M.A., Rector of Lyndon, and late Fellow of Trinity College, Cambridge. Carefully revised and corrected, by Rev. J. A. SPENCER, A.M. From the Fifth London Edition. New York: D. Appleton. Philadelphia: G. S. Appleton.

The public have been much benefited by the republication of Dr. Arnold's productions, and school literature will receive a great addition in the works of which this is the primary volume. The particular distinction which marks this method of instruction, is, that it constantly forces the scholar to review as he advances, while the system has heretofore been presented to the scholar in regular order, and often before fully digested. It is impossible, in studying the language in the method which Dr. Arnold here gives, and which was borrowed from the celebrated Ollendorf, for the scholar to advance without knowing well the previous knowledge presented. We would suggest that teachers compare the advantages thus offered, with those that have sustained the time-honored system, and conclude if they will not dispense with the errors of the latter. We hope the portion of the series that follow this volume, will also be presented, as they doubtless will, by the same publishers.

12.—*Notes of a Traveller, on the Social and Political State of France, Prussia, Switzerland, Italy, and other parts of Europe, during the Present Century.* By SAMUEL LAING, Esq., author of "A Journal of a Residence in Norway," and of "A Tour in Sweden." Philadelphia: Carey & Hart.

This work was first published in Edinburgh, in January, 1842; and in August of the same year, a second edition was called for. It is from this last edition that the present is reprinted. The author has collected a mass of materials in the social economy of the countries named in the title-page, and embodied them in a form at once attractive and philosophical. No works of the class have been more referred to and quoted than the present volume, and the two former on Sweden and Norway. Taking historical events, statistical facts, and his own observation in various tours as the basis, Mr. Laing proceeds straight forward in his conclusions in political or social economy, regardless of the theories, authorities, or opinions that may be jotted out of the road, or of the establishments, classes, or personages, whose assumed merits or false lustre may be rubbed off in the collision, and shocked with truth and just principle. There is a chapter on the German Customs Union, or the Commercial League, as to its political bearings and probable effects, that will be read with interest by our intelligent merchants and statesmen.

13.—*Specimens of the British Critics.* By CHRISTOPHER NORTH—(John Wilson.) Philadelphia: Carey & Hart.

The design of this volume is to republish some of the best collections that appeared during the last year in Blackwood's Magazine. The subjects of the criticism were Dryden and Pope, a survey of their genius and character, as displayed in their works generally, and in particular, upon their celebrated productions—Mac Flecnoe and the Dunciad. Old Christopher North, in his discriminating way, points out the aims and beauties of these matchless satires, and, at the same time, delineates the spirit which marked this peculiar period of English literature. Perhaps, to scholars, the most interesting portion is that which describes the relation of these poets to Juvenal, Homer, and Virgil. Better criticism has not been, and hardly can be written.

14.—*The Outline Series of History.* Philadelphia: Thomas, Cowperthwaite & Co.

This is a series of small works, in which it is intended to embrace treatises on all those subjects which are particularly adapted for school instruction. Of these, six are finished, namely, Outlines of the History of Greece, of Rome, of England, of America, Outlines of Natural Philosophy, and Outlines of Astronomy. It would be difficult to prepare a set of books better adapted to meet the wants of schools, than these. The subjects are among the most important which can be presented to the learner, and the works are comprehensive, without lengthened detail. The treatises on History are among the best compends that are extant on that branch of study; and those on Natural Philosophy and Astronomy, make those subjects so clear that a child that can read, can understand them. These last named works were prepared by C. List, Esq., a gentleman of large experience in educational affairs, of Philadelphia. The mechanical execution is excellent, and their price is such that they may be universally adopted. We recommend them particularly to those interested in the public schools.

15.—*Cleveland's First Latin Book. Cleveland's Latin Grammar. Cleveland's Second Latin Book.* Philadelphia: Thomas, Cowperthwaite & Co.

These works were prepared by Charles D. Cleveland, formerly professor of the Latin and Greek languages in Dickinson College, Carlisle, Pa.; and of the Latin language and literature in the University of the City of New York. They are well calculated for leading the learner forward step by step, in acquiring a knowledge of that language which enters so largely into all our scientific works, and the formation of the language which we speak. The first is founded on the author's original "First Lessons in Latin," which was the first of those "First Lessons" which have now become so numerous. The grammar is founded on Adams' Latin Grammar, and the Second Latin Book on Jacobs' and Doring's Latin Reader. These originals, of course, need no comment. They are known to every teacher as belonging to the first class of Latin school-books; and the notes, and the excellent arrangement made by the present editor, will be found by the student to give them great additional value. We may add to this, that the mechanical execution of the books is of a superior order.

16.—*Narratives of Remarkable Criminal Trials.* Translated from the German of ANSELM RITTER VON FEURBACH, by Lady DUFF GORDON. New York: Harper & Brothers.

These trials are selected from a work of thirteen hundred closely printed pages, and embrace such as appeared to the English editor to possess the greatest general interest, and in obedience to the suggestions of the Edinburgh Review. Although abridged to little more than half their original length, Lady Gordon seems to have preserved the main outline of every trial, which is filled up with just so much of detail as will serve to give a tolerably faithful picture of crimes common to all nations, treated in a manner widely different from our own. Anselm Feurbach, celebrated as a judge, a legislator, and a writer, was, for many years, president of the highest criminal court in Bavaria, and the penal code of that country was chiefly formed by him. The present work has excited great attention in Germany. Several of the trials forcibly illustrate the danger of relying upon circumstantial evidence in criminal prosecutions.

17.—*Journal of Researches into the Natural History and Geology of the Countries Visited during a Voyage of H. M. S. Beagle round the World, under the command of Captain Fitz Roy, R. N.* By CHARLES DARWIN, M. A., F. R. S. In two volumes. New York: Harper & Brothers.

This work forms the tenth and eleventh numbers of "Harper's New Miscellany," a rare collection of useful standard publications. They embrace a history of the voyage of the Beagle, undertaken for scientific purposes, and performed at the expense, and under the direction, of the British government. In his preface to the English edition, Mr. Darwin, the author, states that he accompanied the vessel at the request of her commander, and with the special sanction of the Lords of the Admiralty. We have, in this work, besides a narrative of the voyage, a sketch of Mr. Darwin's observations in natural history and geology, presented in such a manner, as to possess much interest and value to the general reader. It is well adapted to the purpose of popular instruction and entertainment, and we consider its introduction into the series at once appropriate and judicious.

18.—*The Old Continental; or, The Price of Liberty.* By the author of "The Dutchman's Fireside," etc., etc. In two volumes. New York: Paine & Burgess.

This tale, we are informed, in a note appended, was substantially written several years ago; and the author, after keeping it, as he says, more than the period prescribed by Horace, has given it a last revision, and sent it out for the amusement of his countrymen. The personages, and a portion of the story, are historical or traditionary. The design of the author was, to convey to the mind of the reader some idea of the spirit, the sufferings, and the sacrifices of a class of people who are seldom, if ever, individualized in history, yet who always bear the brunt of war and invasion. The hero of the piece, says Mr. Paulding, once actually existed; and exhibited in his youth many of the qualities here ascribed to him. Some of the incidents detailed were well remembered by the people of the neighborhood; few, if any, of whom are now living. Others took place in different parts of the country, at various times. It gives a very graphic picture of the price paid by our fathers and mothers for the freedom we enjoy. It is, on the whole, a very interesting and attractive volume, and well calculated to add to the already well-earned reputation of the author.

19.—*Thoughts on the Poets.* By H. T. TUCKERMAN. New York: C. S. Francis & Co.

Mr. Tuckerman has given us in this volume his "thoughts," and, we may add, criticisms, on twenty-six poets; embracing Petrarch, Goldsmith, Gray, Collins, Pope, Cowper, Thompson, Young, Alfieri, Crabbe, Shelley, Hunt, Byron, Moore, Rogers, Burns, Campbell, Wordsworth, Coleridge, Keats, Barry Cornwall, Mrs. Hemans, Tennyson, Miss Barrett, Drake, and Bryant. These sketches are written in a chaste, classic, and graceful style, although not distinguished for a remarkable degree of vigor; and his thoughts are pure, pleasing, and poetical. Mr. T. is not, perhaps, so highly appreciated as a writer in this country as in England, where he will find a more numerous class of admirers. It forms one of Francis & Co.'s "Cabinet Library of Choice Prose and Poetry;" a series which, perhaps, more than any other, seems peculiarly adapted to the taste of intellectual women.

20.—*Elements of Drawing and Mensuration, applied to the Mechanic Arts; a Book for the Instruction and Use of Practical Men.* By CHARLES DAVIES, LL. D. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co.

Dr. Davies is the author of a series of popular arithmetics, and elementary works on algebra, surveying, geometry, etc., which have been extensively introduced into many of our best schools, and other seminaries of learning. The design of the present work is to afford an elementary text-book of a practical character, adapted to the wants of the community; where, every day, new demands arise for the application of science to the useful arts. The present work will, we have no doubt, be as popular as the other educational works of the author.

21.—*Lilla Hart; a Tale of New York.* By CHARLES BURDETT, author of "The Adopted Child," "Chances and Changes," "Never too Late," Trials and Triumphs," etc. New York: Baker & Scribner.

Mr. Burdett is one of the reporters to the New York Courier and Enquirer, a situation "fraught with endless variety of scene and incident," scarcely paralleled by any other profession. A reporter witnesses many scenes, and comes in contact with every degree of horror, crime and suffering. This tale is founded on facts falling within the knowledge of the author, who gathers lessons of warning and instruction from all, and very happily weaves the incidents into this profitable and pleasing narrative. We are pleased to notice great improvement in the author's style.

22.—*Lives of the Apostles of Jesus Christ.* By D. FRANCIS BACON. New York: Baker & Scribner.

This is a large and handsome volume, of more than six hundred pages. Dr. Bacon, the author, is a gentleman of great versatility of talent; and has, we believe, studied medicine, divinity, and law, to say nothing of politics. He was some time Governor of Liberia, and wrote a very interesting work on Africa, only a part of which has been published. His attainments are extensive, and he has brought to the preparation of the present work no ordinary degree of erudition, besides a large experience. It is written in a pleasing, and at the same time vigorous style; and he seems to have availed himself of the most reliable and authentic sources of information. We can commend it, most heartily, to all who take an interest in that little band of reformers who rallied around the Light of the World, and whose influence on the destiny of the race must extend through all time—eternity.

23.—*Self-Formation: or, the History of an Individual Mind. Intended as a Guide for the Intellect through Difficulties to Success.* By a Fellow of a College. First American, from the London edition. Boston: William Crosby, and H. P. Nichols.

We agree with the American editor in his estimate of this work, that it is, almost without question, the most valuable and useful work upon the subject of self-education, that has yet appeared in our language. It is original, both in plan and execution, and meets the case, as no other among the numerous books which have appeared with a similar design, has succeeded in doing. It is just what the unaided searcher for intellectual elevation and progress wants, to give him impulse, aid, and encouragement, in the arduous, and often disheartening task of self-discipline. Written in unaffected style, and interspersed with illustrative anecdotes, divests it of that dulness which so frequently characterises the essay. It is published in the usually handsome style of the best Boston books.

24.—*My own Home and Fireside: being illustrative of the Speculations of Martin Chuzzlewit & Co. among the Women of the Valley of Eden.* By SYB. Philadelphia: John W. Moore.

The design of this narrative, as we are informed in the preface, is to show who were the companions of certain foreigners who have visited America and traduced it—to expose the cowardly and brutal practice of whipping in the navy—to show who are the desperadoes that drive the Indian from his hunting grounds without remuneration—to present the life of the seamstress, and their vile treatment by the principals in some establishments—and to illustrate how, from the most base and impure parentage, often springs an issue cultivated and virtuous—and that the good of life sometimes dwells in the most corrupt communities. These views are woven into quite a readable and agreeable narrative.

25.—*Family and Private Prayers.* By the Rev. WILLIAM BERRIAN, D. D., Rector of Trinity Church, New York. New York: Stanford & Swords.

This is a very handsome duodecimo volume of more than four hundred pages, printed on a large, bold type, a great desideratum for a work designed for "all ages and all eyes." As a manual of devotion for the family and closet, it is peculiarly suited to the taste and feelings of the devout churchman. The principal part of it is taken from the Book of Common Prayer, and the rest, which will appear new to many, is drawn from the offices for special occasions, in the liturgy of the Church of England. It embraces prayers for every day in the month, for all the fasts and feasts of the Church, and, in fact, for almost every event and circumstance in life.

26.—*Margaret: or, the Pearl.* By the Rev. CHARLES B. TAYLOR, M. A. New York: Stanford & Swords.

"Lady Mary," and "Records of a Good Man's Life," by the same author, are among the most popular religious narratives of the day, and their circulation among Episcopalians in England and in this country, is quite extensive. The present story is of the same class, with, perhaps, this exception, that it will be considered by some rather more sectarian in its character than the latter. "Tractarianism," which has risen up in the Church of England, the author considers one of the chief errors of the day, and it is the object of the present narrative to show "the effects of the system as regards our own private and domestic circles, and the interior of our homes." The story is embraced in a handsome duodecimo, of about two hundred and fifty pages.

27.—*The Philosophy of Reform; in which are exhibited the Design, Principle, and Plan of God, for the Full Development of Man, as a Social, Civil, Intellectual, and Moral Being; thereby elevating him in the Scale of Being to the Position he was created to occupy.* By Rev. C. BILLINGS SMITH. New York: Gates & Stedman.

We rejoice at every indication of reform, and it is particularly gratifying to note the movements made by the Church and its ministers, who have for centuries been too much disposed not only to hold fast that which is good, but also many evils and abuses. The author addresses himself to the Christian, the Scholar, and the Statesman; and enforces with considerable power the doctrine of the progress of the race. The aims of the author are good; and, from the fact that the essay is recommended by such men as the Rev. Dr. Skinner, the Rev. William R. Williams, and others of the same theological stamp, will find a class of readers different from that which usually advance similar views of man and society.

28.—*The Artists of America.* New York: Baker & Scribner.

We have, on a former occasion, expressed our approbation of the design and character of this enterprise. The present number embraces sketches of John Trumbull and James De Veaux.

29.—*Simmonds' Colonial Magazine and Foreign Miscellany.* Edited by P. L. Simmonds, F.S.S. London: Simmonds & Ward.

This most useful of the London Magazines has reached its twenty-eighth monthly issue. It is conducted with signal ability, and is devoted to the interests of the British Colonies, which "sweep the globe, and touch every shore." Every number is replete with information touching the geography, commerce, population, resources, and, in brief, all those elements that render the colonies so important to the mother country, and of so much interest to the commercial world. The April number (which is full of interesting matter) contains an article on the Oregon question, which, of course, takes the English view of the claim. That the claims of the two parties may be amicably adjusted, is the prayer of every friend of humanity in the civilized world. We should regret, exceedingly, to be deprived for a time of the intellectual feast our worthy collaborateur monthly spreads before us in the pages of his well-stored magazine.

30.—*Life of Julius Cæsar.* New York: Leavitt, Trow & Co.

This is the first number of a "Monthly Series of Useful Reading," of a pure and elevated character. It includes nearly the whole of the first books of the Lives of the Cæsars, by Suetonius, and is more perfect and copious than Plutarch's life of this warrior. It is well remarked in the preface, that to those who condemn all war, shrinking from enemies as from fiends, the Life of Cæsar presents little more than a succession of murderous tragedies.

31.—*The Life and Remains of the Rev. Robert Housman, A. B., the Founder, and, for above Forty Years, the Incumbent Minister of St. Ann's, Lancaster, and formerly Curate to Rev. T. Robinson, M. A., of Leicester.* By Robert Fletcher Housman, Esq. New York: Robert Carter.

This volume contains, as we are informed in the preface to it, "a somewhat extended memoir of the life and opinions of one, to whose faithful and long protracted ministry of the Gospel, unusually large measures of divine favor were awarded." It is printed and published in the uniformly correct and handsome style of Mr. Carter.

32.—*Wonderful Stories for Children.* By Hans Christian Anderson, author of "The Improvisatore," etc. Translated from the Danish. By Mary Howitt. New York: Wiley & Putnam.

Here are ten stories, amusing and instructive; and, as they have the endorsement of Mary Howitt, we may venture to recommend them to "little folks" without the reading.

33.—*Elizabeth Benton; or, Religion in Connection with Fashionable Life.* New York: Harper & Brothers.

This is one of a series of original social tales, designed to enforce, in an agreeable form, the serious obligations of moral life; and, like the series of re-prints by the Appletons, is intended for the people and their children.

BOOKS IN PAPER COVERS.

34.—*Rose-Marie; or the Gage Family.* By Charles Paul de Kock, author of "Andrew the Savoyard," etc. Translated from the French by Thomas Williams, Esq. New York: William Taylor & Co. [This is an elegant translation of a romance unlike most of the writer's, in that it is unexceptionable in its moral tone and tendency.]

35.—*Twenty Years After; or the Three Musquetaires. A Sequel to the Three Guardsmen.* By Alexander Dumas. Translated from the French by R. P. New York: William Taylor & Co.

36.—*The Young Duke.* By the author of "Vivian Grey." 2 vols. in one. Harper's Pocket Edition of Select Novels, No. 15. Price 25 cents.

37.—*The Chevalier D'Harmental; or Love and Conspiracy.* Translated from the French of A. Dumas. By P. F. Christen, and Eugene Sue. Harper's Library of Select Novels, No. 77.

38.—*The Three Guardsmen.* By Alexander Dumas. Translated from the French by Park Godwin. Baltimore: Taylor, Wilde & Co.

39.—*Marguerite De Valois; an Historical Romance.* By Alexander Dumas. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

40.—*The History and Extraordinary Adventures of Margaret Catchpole, a Suffolk Girl.* By the Rev. Richard Arbold. First American, from the third English edition. With illustrations. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

41.—*Artists of America.* By C. Edwards Lester. New York: Baker & Scribner. [No. 5 contains sketches of Rembrandt Peale and Thomas Crawford, with faithful portraits of each.]

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Public Documents.—We take this opportunity of expressing our gratitude to the Hon. William W. Campbell, Hon. D. S. Dickinson, and Hon. Charles S. Benton, of New York, Hon. Charles Hudson, Hon. R. C. Winthrop, of Massachusetts, Hon. George P. Marsh, of Vermont, Hon. George Bancroft, Secretary of the Navy, and the Hon. R. H. Gillet, Register of the Treasury, for valuable public documents sent us during the present session of Congress. The duplicates we receive, answer a useful purpose, as we send them to valued correspondents abroad, who furnish us with the official papers of the governments of Europe, in exchange.

THE

# MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE,

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BY FREEMAN HUNT, EDITOR AND PROPRIETOR.

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HUNT'S

# MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE.

JUNE, 1846.

## Art. I.—THE MORAL INFLUENCE OF STEAM.*

THE AGENCY OF STEAM CONSIDERED IN ITS DIVERSIFIED APPLICATION, AS RESULTING FROM THE PRESENT ADVANCED STATE OF SOCIAL IMPROVEMENT—COMPARATIVE VIEW OF ANCIENT AND MODERN COMMERCE, AND THE GRADUAL PROGRESS OF THOSE DISCOVERIES AND IMPROVEMENTS WHICH HAVE PREPARED THE WAY FOR STEAM AGENCY—CONSIDERATION OF STEAM IN ITS HISTORY AND ITS INFLUENCE.

THE history of nations is little more than a record of their wars and their commerce; the former carrying with them ruin and desolation; the latter spreading wide the blessings of wealth and civilization. The former drying up every source of moral and social improvement; the latter uniting communities in the bonds of peaceful intercourse, and stimulating to honorable and profitable enterprise. We read of a great leader of antiquity, who moistened with tears the boundary line of his conquests, and grieved to think that the known world had no more kingdoms to reward his ambition. How much more glorious the fortune of *him* who, triumphing over the prejudices of his age, discovered a new hemisphere, and gave to the mind of man a boundless field of action.

What success in arms was ever comparable to the first successful navigation of the Atlantic? Its reward was the discovery of a new continent, and that continent the domain and future heritage of civilized man.

Thanks to the benign and humanizing spirit of the age in which we live, if there be a maxim universally assented to as the result of the experience of all recorded time, it is that *peace* is the best and truest policy of nations, as it is of the individuals who compose them. The prosperity it promotes, has an all-pervading influence, which not only exalts the *rational* part of creation, by giving it the leisure and the opportunity of cultivating its higher powers, but multiplies the comforts of the *brute*, and mitigates the severity of his labors. Even the inanimate world rejoices beneath its smiles, developing the elements of usefulness in every varied form and

* The manuscript copy of this paper, read before the "Mercantile Library Association" of Charleston, South Carolina, April 3d, 1846, has been politely furnished by the author, CHARLES FRASER, Esq., for publication in this Magazine.

modification; and yielding to industry and well directed enterprise, the treasures which Providence has hidden in its bosom, as their noblest reward. And what is commerce, uniting the families of the earth in the bonds of friendly intercourse, and impressing them with the conviction of mutual dependence, but an extension of this great principle?

To what human means was it most likely for the *Prince of Peace* to refer, for conveying the "*words of truth to all nations*," than to that communication between them, which commerce afforded. And *his* was a wisdom which, extending over all time, looked forward to the undreamed-of discoveries and improvements of human boldness and ingenuity, and embraced a far wider range of action than was revealed, even to those to whom the command was given.

How beautiful, then, is the thought, that nature, in rewarding the industry of man by superfluities of products, invites their interchange amongst the remotest nations, and the most opposite climates; and, by that means, unites them in the kindliest feelings, and makes her very gifts the bonds of mutual and peaceful intercourse. How grateful, too, the reflection that, at this very moment, the vessels that are wafting from our shores the productions of our varied climate, and scarcely less varied industry, are also spreading the tidings of the gospel, and carrying with them the oil and the lamp that shall give light to the benighted regions of the earth. How unlike the doomed ships of ancient Tyrus, which emptied their riches and their merchandise upon the shores but to swell the pomp of an unholy luxury, and to make her downfall more awful and desolate! Such reflections show the distinctive character of the commerce of modern times, and elevate it, incomparably, beyond all of which history informs us. They associate it with an object which cannot fail to ennoble, we might almost say, to consecrate it. They raise the standing of the modern merchant far above those who, in their day, were called "kings and princes." They recognize, even in the tempest-worn mariner, a laborer in the great cause of human improvement.

Extensive as was the commerce of antiquity, it was destitute of that bold and venturous spirit which belongs to that of modern times. Though wonderfully successful in its objects, it never aimed at discovery. Science had done too little for it to claim any devotion on its part, to her advancement. The maritime trade which enriched Phœnicia, the earliest commercial nation known to history, was a coasting one. The ports of Europe and Africa, along the shores of the Mediterranean, its numerous islands, the rivers emptying into it, and connecting it with a widely extended interior, as also the borders of the Archipelago and Euxine sea, furnished all the chief articles of luxury which centered in that great emporium. We may say articles of luxury, for such constituted the chief objects of *ancient* commerce, as gold, silver, precious stones, ivory, aromatics, and myrrh; and well might we believe it, when we are informed by historians that, on one occasion, a single festival consumed twenty-five tons of frankincense. Carthage, Alexandria, and every other city that turned its attention to trade, pursued the same timid course of navigation; and it is worthy of remark that, in their extensive nautical traffic, oars were their chief propelling power. When naval ascendancy became an object with rival nations, the number of these was multiplied, to give additional speed to their vessels, for the largest of them carried but one mast.

Thus, whilst some of the arts practised by the ancients, attained an

excellence which, if ever equalled, can never be surpassed by all the skill and improvement of modern genius, as is attested by what remains of their sculpture and their architecture, subsequent ages have exceeded them in every branch of navigation, and have always advanced in proportion to the expanding interests of commerce; and we may boldly assert that in nothing has modern ingenuity been more conspicuous than in building, equipping, and navigating ships. The stars, which served the ancient navigator only as beacons to direct his course, and which, when obscured, left him in hopeless uncertainty, have since furnished, by the calculations of science, the most unerring guide. The clouds that now dim their light, cast no corresponding darkness over his vessel's course. The compass and the quadrant, the chronometer, the reckoning, and his nautical tables, enable the modern sailor to ascertain, with almost infallible precision, his bearing and situation. Whatever be the extent of his voyage, however unknown the seas he explores, however severe the latitude, or repulsive the coast, he carries with him, in the discoveries of science, a light to cheer him in his gloomiest hour, and to give augury of escape from the most complicated perils. The recent enlargement of the telescope, has enabled that gigantic wanderer of the night to explore new regions of space, and to introduce to the astronomers, bodies that have moved in their orbits, undiscovered, from the beginning of time. Nor are the *materials* of modern commerce less remarkable for their superiority to that of the ancients, than the *navigation* by which it is conducted. Although a vessel may not now waft the odors of Arabia, or be freighted with the silver of Tarshish, or the gold of Ophir, to pamper the luxury and corrupt the morals of a people, by marking more distinctly the line of division between the wealthy and the indigent, she conveys the rich reward of agricultural labor, of mineral exploration, and of manufacturing enterprise. She disseminates the treasures of science and learning, and, what gives her more value than all the argosies of old, she is the harbinger of human progress and Christian civilization.

If we consider but a few of the exports of our own country, we shall find them fully sustaining the character here described. The sugar, cotton, rice, and naval stores of the South—the grain, hemp, flour, bacon, of the Middle and Western States—the fish, oil, manufactured cottons, and other productions of New England enterprise and industry, are, all, articles contributing to the immediate support and comfort of other nations, and enhancing the importance of our peaceful commercial relations. There is not an ocean which our vessels do not traverse, a port they do not visit, or a people which does not extend to them the hand of amity. New commodities are daily springing up from the hot-bed of American skill and industry, to make our commerce more diffusive, and its value more certain. Extending our view to other portions of the civilized world, we find them applying all their energies to such useful pursuits, as shall enhance the value of their productions as articles of trade. We behold nations dispensing the redundancy of their products, whether of food or raiment, to supply the deficiencies of others; thus equalizing the gifts of nature, however partially distributed. An end so consonant to the noblest dictates of philanthropy belongs exclusively to *modern commerce*, for some of the least of whose facilities, all the wealth of antiquity would have been no equivalent. The commerce of the present age, is not confined to those perishable articles which the perpetually recurring physical wants of society require, or its

luxury covets; but it enriches nations with that wealth which nothing can destroy. It disseminates the literature of the world, and brings minds in contact, however widely separated.

Such are some of the privileges with which it has pleased Providence to distinguish the age in which we live. It has placed us on an eminence from which we can survey the past, and look upon its boasted improvements as so many steps in the progress of human advancement. Elements of happiness and prosperity are developed to us, which it never entered into the philosophy of our predecessors to conceive. We are made familiar with things "hidden from the wise and prudent of other times," and are enabled to connect, as by an almost necessary concatenation, the great process of social improvement. And, in this process, how beautiful has been the adaptation of each successive discovery to the period and condition of society in which it was made.

An imperfect knowledge of astronomy, (as we have seen) was sufficient for the circumscribed navigation of the ancients. But when the interests of nations required the expansion of commerce, and they found a barrier to it in the untried dangers of that ocean upon which its vitality depended, a simple discovery, suggested by the accidental observation of magnetic attraction, at once removed that barrier, and gave to the mariner a passport as unlimited as the globe. So, too, with regard to *letters* amongst the ancients. The laborious and expensive process by which their thoughts were preserved and transmitted, necessarily restricted the circulation of knowledge. Learning was, comparatively, the privilege of few; and it is only a matter of wonder that so much of their poetry, their history and philosophy, has escaped the ravages of time, and the still more desolating effects of the barbarism and ignorance of the ages through which they subsequently passed.

But no sooner did civilization begin to dawn, and the mind to peer through the gloom which had so long overshadowed its energies, than the discovery of printing came to its aid; and this was an ally against which all the powers of darkness could not prevail. It burst at once the prison-doors of knowledge, and unfettered those treasures of genius which had lain so long hidden, like the diamond imbedded in its native earth. Would the interests of mankind have been promoted by the discovery of printing before Christianity had made such progress, and encountered such obstacles, as to make it an indispensable agent in human civilization? Might it not, under other influences than those which prevailed at the period of its invention, have received an impulse favorable to the propagation of error and superstition, and thus have blighted the fairest hopes of man?

> "And who dare think that Providence is slow,
> Because it takes the privilege to choose
> Its own appointed time, when it will send
> Its blessings down?"———

Ancient systems of government, also, bore exclusive relation to the condition of the people over whom they prevailed, and would be found to yield their boasted pre-eminence to the discovery of the checks and balances which form the pride of modern political systems.

And might not man, thus surrounded with the trophies of the skill and enterprise of the past, with every blessing in his reach which the industry and success of his predecessors have won for him, and with such accumulated proof before his eyes, that there is not an element in nature, or a

known property of matter, that has not been rendered subservient to his comfort—might he not have justly concluded that the sum of social happiness was complete, and that he had only to prove himself worthy of its enjoyment? Yes, but Providence would have rebuked the thought, not by chastising his inactivity, but by other and higher evidences of its favor, by placing under his control an agent of illimitable force, requiring all the moral, intellectual, and physical energies of his nature, to direct it to the ends of which it is capable—ends commensurate with all that we can imagine of human attainment.

That agent has been discovered to him; and if the discovery of steam, or rather, the development of its powers, in their application to commerce and manufactures, has been reserved for the nineteenth century, it is only because that era exhibits a higher degree of civilization, and therefore, a fitter field for its operations, than was ever before known in the history of society. We remember to have seen a series of maps illustrating the successive advances of one of the great cities of the world, from its earliest beginning to its present condition of unexampled prosperity. Each page, as it was turned over, became more interesting, until the last displayed an extent and magnificence which seemed to defy the further improvements of time; and can we but be struck with the figurative allusion of that last page to the corresponding one of the great moral chart we have been surveying.

Steam has developed, to an extent never before conceived, the value of the improvements and discoveries of the past. It has stimulated the researches of science, it has perfected every branch of the mechanic arts. The attainments of philosophy, the diversified inventions of human ingenuity, and, above all, the general progress of literature, seem to have been but the preludes to a discovery destined, in its ultimate development, to promote, beyond every known agent, the great aim of social economy and prosperity. And it is the pride of our country to have had a most prominent and honorable share in its direction to so glorious a result.

A distinguished Roman, whose statue has escaped the ravages of time, is represented with a globe in his hand, as an emblem of universal conquest. Vain boast! Does that globe represent on its surface the fairest portion of Earth? Does it embrace within his dominion the shores we inhabit, or foreshadow, however faintly, that hemisphere which was destined to be, in after times, the great starting point of those improvements whose triumphs were indeed to be universal? If such were the ornament of Pompey's statue, how much more emblematic would it be of the fame of Fulton, to whom peace, commerce, religion, science, and learning, are indebted for that adaptation of steam—

> "By which remotest regions are allied,
> Which makes one city of the universe."

If the remarks thus imperfectly expressed, have, in any manner, served the purpose for which they were designed, of showing how exactly suited to the condition of the world have been those discoveries which have most prominently accommodated themselves to its necessities, and how accidental have been the suggestions leading to those discoveries, we will see in them a plan of wider extent and deeper wisdom than could have ever been devised by man.

There is an analogy between the moral and the material developments of nature, proving that they are equally gradual and progressive; and it

is equally true that the hidden properties of matter, which have been, from time to time, fortuitously revealed to man, could never have been made available by his ingenuity, or have led to any useful discovery, without a concurrence of extrinsic circumstances to favor its adoption. Hence it is that steam, which has been long known in Europe as an agent of great power, was applied there with so little effect. So difficult was it to divert industry from its old and beaten tracks, that every effort to extend its usefulness by experiment, was deemed visionary, and therefore discountenanced. It was in the United States that the infant Hercules found a congenial atmosphere, and imbibed that vigor which has since characterised his labors and his triumphs. And it is a fact, not unworthy of our notice, that, although the project of applying steam to navigation in this country depended, unfortunately for its success, upon expensive experiments, which its authors were unable to continue or improve, yet that that project originated with the earliest impulses of republican freedom, as though there had been some mysterious connection between those two great agents, which was to give them a united influence on the future destinies of man. There is a singular coincidence in regard to the time when the two rival claimants of the invention first turned their attention to it. It was in 1785, that *John Fitch*, a watchmaker of Philadelphia, first conceived the design of a steamboat. It was also in the same year that *James Rumsey*, of Virginia, was contemplating a similar experiment, as appears by a letter of General Washington to him, of the 5th March, 1785, wishing success to his plan. Rumsey's experiment was made in 1787, on the Potomac. Fitch made his on the Delaware, in 1788, and succeeded in propelling his boat for a short distance, at the rate of eight miles an hour. The only end gained by these experiments, was the proof they furnished of the practicability of the project. They were a little too far in advance of the condition of the country, exhausted as it then was, to be followed up by any systematic or permanent improvement. But they remained as hints for the future direction of some more fortunate adventurer.

There is a touching interest in the subsequent history of John Fitch. His enterprise had involved him in debt; but with poverty, his ardor felt no abatement. Congress had rejected his application for assistance; he was without the support of friends, and yielding, at length, to despondency, he withdrew to the West. Even *there*, his genius found consolation in the prediction, that in less than a century, all the great western rivers would be covered with steamboats; and so possessed was he with that thought, that his last request was "to be buried on the banks of the Ohio, that the music of the steam-engine might soothe his spirit." Poor Fitch! let all the sympathies due to unrequited genius hover over that grave. *If it be solitary*, let it be cheered by the pilgrim feet of him that honors obscure merit, and can breathe a sigh over its last resting-place. *If it be silent*, let nature mingle her sweetest harmonies with those sounds which respond to the last earthly hope of his departing spirit.

One of those who witnessed the experiment on the Delaware, was the celebrated Brissot, then travelling through the United States, who mentions that it was met by the sarcasm and raillery of the Americans; and expresses his indignation that they should have so discouraged the generous efforts of one of their fellow-citizens. He considered it an all-important project in a country abounding in rivers, and where labor, of all kinds, was so dear. Afterwards, and before the publication of his volume of

travels, he met Mr. Rumsey in London, who, nowise daunted by the difficulties he had experienced, or had yet to encounter, proposed building a steam vessel which should cross the Atlantic in fifteen days. Fifty years elapsed before the magnificent project was realized. But a conception so bold and so novel for the period in which it was made, shows the prophetic energies of genius. When Fulton, at a subsequent period, availing himself of intermediate improvements, proposed the navigation of the Hudson by steam, it was doubted whether the success of the project would justify the expense which it necessarily involved. Many thought that the travelling was not sufficient to maintain it. Its practicability was at least doubtful to many, and by all it was deemed visionary and chimerical. But every obstacle vanished before the unconquerable vigor and enterprise of the proprietor; and now, within a period of thirty-nine years, steam navigation has furnished so many facilities for travelling, that, so far from realizing the objections anticipated, it can scarcely accommodate the living mass that is constantly moving up and down that great thoroughfare of the state.

In that brief period, also, not only the waters of the Hudson, but of every great river in the United States, are navigated by steam. The ocean is traversed by it, without regard to winds or currents, and every part of the civilized world is made to acknowledge its advantages. So great, indeed, is the power of the steam-engine, and so far has it transcended the limits and objects contemplated by its early advocates and promoters, that *we*, with all its results so fully displayed to our senses, and so fully brought home to our observation and experience, *we* cannot conceive the uncontrollable influence it is destined to exercise, or realize the yet unmeasured diversification of its usefulness. It had long been a desideratum with philosophers and mechanics, so to regulate and control the elastic force of steam, as to make it practically useful. This object being attained, improvement succeeded improvement, and its powers became so obvious, and so manifestly obedient to the ingenuity of man, that it is now universally employed as the great motive agent in machinery, triumphing over time and space, outstripping the winds in speed, annihilating every obstacle by sea or land, and almost defying the organic influences which regulate the surface of our globe. Nor is it only over matter that it exercises this control; for so wonderfully does it relieve the necessity of physical exertion, that it seems destined, in its future action and developments, to disturb the moral economy of the world, by opposing that great law of the universe, which makes labor the portion of man, and condemns him to earn his bread by the sweat of his brow. Listen to the following statement:

"It has been calculated that two hundred men, with machinery moved by steam, now manufacture as much cotton as would require twenty millions of persons without machines; that is, one man, by the application of inorganic motive agents, can now produce the same amount of work that formerly required one hundred thousand men. The annual product of machinery in Great Britain, a mere spot on the earth, would require the physical energies of one-half the inhabitants of the globe, or four hundred millions of men. And the various applications of steam, in different parts of the world, now produce an amount of useful labor which, if performed by manual strength, would require the incessant exertions of every human being."

When, in addition to such astounding facts as these, it is remembered

that the system of improvement is still going on, and that experiments are now in progress for applying steam to agriculture, can any speculation on its results be thought extravagant or absurd? The annals of science furnish no instance of such rapid improvements, and such wide-spreading influence, in any one human discovery. What the *lens* was to astronomy, the invention of printing to the circulation of knowledge, or the compass to navigation, were comparatively tardy in relation to steam, which cannot be better represented in its developments, than by the accelerated action it gives to everything to which it is applied. Other discoveries of science may have displayed greater depth of search, more comparative investigation, or profounder analytic knowledge, but the application of steam, as a motive agent, is one of the greatest triumphs of human ingenuity. And yet, it is wonderful that an element so simple in itself, and so familiar, even to common household observation, as the expansive power of water, should not have been earlier applied to practical use. For, after all, it seems to be rather the effect of the discovery than the discovery itself, that so widely distinguishes it from all others.

It is well known that the ancients were acquainted with the elastic power of steam. It required no scientific research to discover that boiling water evolved a dilateable, eruptive vapor, any effort to control or overcome which, would prove that it was irresistible, and must have vent in explosion. This fearful result, so long as they were ignorant of the manner of regulating that vapor and graduating its force, may have deterred them from making any practical use of the hint thus furnished by nature. It is said that the sound produced by the vocal statue of Memnon, at Thebes, was either from steam generated at its base, or from the expansion of air heated within by the rays of the morning sun. It has been said that, among the artful practices of the Delphian oracle, steam was resorted to, and that the vapors which surrounded the Pythian upon her tripod, were evolved from vessels beneath, and also that steam was often enlisted to aid the juggling arts of the heathen priesthood.

The Romans used it in their baths. We have the authority of travellers for saying that, in the splendid Thermæ of Caracalla, there were halls, not only for tepid and warm, but also for steam baths. An instrument was in use amongst the Romans, which has been called the germ of the steam-engine. It was a round vessel of metal that would bear heat. It was hollow, with a small aperture in it, and, when filled with water, and placed on the fire, the steam was ejected with great violence. It was used as a bellows for blowing fires, and also for other purposes. It is said that Vitruvius gives a particular account of them.

These appear to comprehend the whole amount of knowledge and practice for a long course of time; scarcely, in themselves, of sufficient importance to be mentioned, except as being the basis of the improvements of after ages. As far as we know, steam was never employed for any more useful purpose than raising water. The cylinder, the piston, expansion and condensation, were the great triumphs of modern philosophy; and these appear to have been the results of successive experiments, made at different times, by different individuals. But by whom discovered or by whom adapted, so numerous is the list of rival names, and so well sustained are the several claims for the distinction, that it would be foreign to the particular objects of this paper to inquire; not but that it would be interesting to trace to its source this stream, whose channels extend over

the habitable globe. In the thirteenth century, Roger Bacon, it is said, was acquainted with steam as a moving power. In the fifteenth century, a naval officer of Spain, in the harbor of Barcelona, propelled a vessel of two hundred tons, by steam. An Italian of the same period, named Cardan, showed that he was acquainted with the vacuum occasioned by condensation of steam. The seventeenth century was distinguished by many successful experiments, particularly in the acknowledged improvements of the Marquis of Worcester, who, in 1663, published an account of them in his famous book called "the Century of Inventions." We read also of Sir Samuel Moreland, who, in 1683, gave very accurate calculations on the force of steam. In 1698, Thomas Savary obtained a patent for a new invention for raising water, and occasioning motion to all sorts of mill-work, the great object to which so much experimental ingenuity had been so long unsuccessfully devoted. One of the London quarterlies, speaking of him, says that he brought it to such a degree of perfection, as to stamp it the most precious gift which man ever bequeathed to his race. The impulse of improvement was continued throughout the following century, in the successive labors and discoveries of Papin, Newcomer, Smeaton, Boulton, and, lastly, of James Watt, whose discoveries and improvements form quite an era in the history of the steam-engine. His knowledge of the physical principles on which its operations depended, and his mechanical arrangements, in all their details, developed its powers, and fully accomplished the great object for which he was striving. Down to the beginning of the nineteenth century, steam-engines were chiefly, if not altogether, used for hydraulic purposes—for raising water and draining mines—and were not employed as a moving power in machinery and navigation. And here we might express astonishment that a discovery whose improvements involved such elaborate research, and had been gradually advancing through a recorded series of five centuries, with experiment upon experiment, and toil upon toil, and capable of the wonderful agency it now develops, should, at the end of that time, have gained no greater ascendancy, nor have exercised a more beneficial influence on the interests upon which it was calculated to operate. Mr. Emmett, in his great argument for Mr. Fulton, in the case of Gibbons against Ogden, speaking of steam, says that "Genius had contended with its inherent difficulties for generations before, and if some had nearly reached, or even touched the goal, they sank exhausted, and the result of their efforts perished in reality, and almost in name." Dr. Miller, in his retrospect, in the chapter on mechanical philosophy, and particularly under the head of motion and moving forces, does not advert to the steam-engine; but speaks of it, incidentally, under the head of *pneumatics*, and informs us of the application of steam to "cookery, and the propelling of vessels in the water, with promising success." Even at the beginning of the nineteenth century, the highest hopes and anticipations of its friends were shadowed with doubt and difficulty. It is true that Fitch, as we have already stated, did prophecy that steamboats, in less than a century, would cover our western waters. It is true that Dr. Darwin, fifty years ago, uttered the celebrated prediction—

> "Soon shall thy arm, unconquered steam, afar
> Drive the slow barge, or drag the rapid car,"

and Fulton foretold that the time would come when the Mississippi would be wholly navigated with steamboats. We are here reminded of a singu-

lar fact mentioned by Alison, in his history of Europe, which, as he says, "demonstrates how little the clearest intellect can anticipate the ultimate result of the discoveries which are destined to effect the greatest changes in human affairs." When the French were making arrangements for the invasion of England, in 1801, an obscure individual, (who was no other than Robert Fulton,) presented himself to the First Consul, and offered to transport his armies across the channel, in spite of the enemy's fleets, and without the fear of tempests or the need of winds. The plans and details were received by Napoleon, and referred to a commission of the most learned men in France, who reported that it was visionary and impracticable. "And such," says Alison, "was the reception which steam navigation met at the hands of *philosophy*; such the first success of the greatest discovery of modern times."

As late as the summer of 1806, steam had never been used in the United States for navigation, excepting by way of experiment. Mr. Fulton's boat was not launched till the spring of 1807. The difficulties he had to encounter, and the prejudices he overcame, together with the sacrifice of his life to the object he had so enthusiastically undertaken, are now all matters of history, and will be remembered with the respect due to so great a benefactor of his country. We will only, therefore, briefly consider them in their results. But here we may observe that it is not to be supposed that if the application of steam to navigation, so successfully accomplished by Fulton, had not been made in America, at the precise time it was, that it would not have been done in Great Britain. The time, labor, and money expended in bringing the machine to perfection in that country, demanded so triumphant a result. We are informed that a Mr. Miller, of Scotland, in 1787, made the most satisfactory experiment on the Forth and Clyde canal, satisfying himself and others of the entire practicability of the steamboat. But it was laid by, and nothing more resulted from it than the assertion of his claim to priority, made by his son, in 1824, long after the benefits of steam navigation had become manifest to the world. If the Americans are entitled to the distinction of first bringing steam to bear upon navigation for any useful and practical purpose, it may be accounted for in the fact that our continent is one of lakes and rivers, and also presents a greater extent of coast than belongs to any one nation in the world; and that these are the great highways and channels through which our commercial prosperity is to be promoted and established. The United States had few or no resources for manufactories, and if steam was to be made useful on a great scale, it could only be so for purposes of internal trade and intercourse.

Had the geographical position of Great Britain been similar to ours, steamboats would, no doubt, have abounded in her rivers long before they were brought into use in the United States. But the ingenuity of her artificers and mechanics was directed to other objects. She was essentially a manufacturing country, and, therefore, to save labor, and facilitate its operations, was their primary aim in the application of steam. All that the United States wanted, was confidence in the practicability of steam navigation. Nature had already established and smoothed the roads. The vehicle only was wanting; and Robert Fulton constructed that vehicle. At the success of his efforts, every doubt and mistrust vanished, as the mists of morning before the rising sun. Nor is this similitude inapt in other respects; for a new and glorious light then dawned upon the pros-

pects of our country, cheering the hopes of industry, kindling the ardor of enterprise, and destined, in its highest elevation, not only to multiply blessings on our land, but to shed a kindly influence over the whole human family, uniting them in interest and brotherly feeling, and, above all, in the knowledge of truth.

Fulton has been charged with want of originality. Indeed, the progressive history of steam proves that he could not have been an inventor. But his practical application of it to the circumstances of our country, showed a profound and comprehensive knowledge of her best interests, and an energy and enthusiasm fully corresponding with the great object of his exertions. Without the steamboat, ages might have passed without such a development of her resources as is now exhibited. The enterprise and industry of the West would have been unrewarded; the progress of civilization would have been slow; the trees of the forest would have still overshadowed the sites of flourishing villages; silence and solitude would have prevailed, where now the busy hum of men resounds, and the inheritance of the hardy pioneer would have been ignorance and barbarism.

Before the introduction of steam on the Hudson, the tediousness of a voyage to Albany was proverbial. Alexander Hamilton had written one or two of his most elaborate papers for the Federalist on board of a North river sloop; whereas, the passage is now so rapid that it would hurry the recitation of an improvisatore. The writer of this remembers, with great interest, the contrast exhibited to his own personal observation in the interval between 1806 and 1816. At the former period, steam navigation was known only to be derided as chimerical and unfeasible. At the latter, we not only traversed the river and sound by steam, but beheld, at the navy-yard in New York, a stately frigate, which gave at least to our government the credit of first employing steam for defence.

We will now leave the Hudson to the flow of its waters and its prosperity, and accompany Mr. Fulton to the Ohio, where he launched the first western steamboat at Pittsburgh, in 1811. In that keel, he laid the foundation of a prosperity whose rapid increase, and diffusive extent, are unexampled in the history of man. A voyage from Pittsburgh to New Orleans, which then occupied, with great toil and difficulty, a period of four months, was about to be accomplished in ten or fifteen days, with the certainty of a return against a current of two thousand miles. A tide of population flowed westward without effort, and agriculture threw a mantle of gladness over the wilderness, changing its whole aspect, and converting it into the happy abodes of men. So rapid was the increase of steam, that, from the year 1814 to 1835, we are told, upon the best authority, that five hundred and eighty-eight steamboats were built; and that, in January, 1841, there were four hundred and thirty-seven navigating the western and southwestern waters. At this time there are upwards of fifteen hundred; and, from a recent statement, it appears that the steam tonnage on the western waters is 145,311 registered, whilst our lake steam tonnage is 24,486. But the growth of steam navigation defies all statistical accuracy. We now behold it spreading, not only through the United States, but over the whole world, "*nobilitate viget.*" It has been even introduced on the Tiber, stemming the current of that venerable stream, and proceeding to the very walls of Rome, as if to offer the homage of modern genius and enterprise at the shrine of her ancient greatness. And this brings us to that view of the subject which converts the steamboat into the steamship, and transfers

the scene of her operations from the river and the lake to the boundless ocean. If steam navigation had its origin in the United States, and even if one of its citizens was the first to venture successfully on the ocean, still the honor of Atlantic steam navigation is due to Great Britain. Her wealth, her skill in mechanics, her indomitable enterprise, and, above all, her naval experience, entitle her to the proud distinction, and she has maintained her claim with a continued perseverance, in the benefits of which our country has largely participated; and, whilst the interests of commerce are conducted in their ordinary course, all that relates to the communication of intelligence, to the spread of literature, and to the certainty and convenience of travelling, are greatly facilitated by steam.

If it is the glorious and gigantic tendency of steam navigation, to bring nations together, to dispel the difficulties and prejudices arising from difference of laws, language, and climate, what shall we say of that system of internal intercourse which is now spreading itself universally, uniting the remotest parts of the same country, promoting commercial and personal interchange, and speeding the communication of sentiments, with a velocity that seems to retain the very warmth of the breath that uttered them.

If, as has been beautifully said in relation to the steamship, the sceptre which it wields over the deep is but a bucket-full of its own waters, whose elastic breath defies tide and tempest, by what image can we portray the locomotive, swift "as the sightless coursers of the air," yet depending for its triumphs on the little fount by the way-side, over which the weary and languid traveller may have often lingered for rest and refreshment. As Great Britain first adapted steam to the railroad, she was entitled to the first great exhibition of its powers. And this was realized in the Liverpool and Manchester railroad, which was commenced in June, 1826, and completed in September, 1830, at the estimated cost of £820,000. Dr. Lardner, speaking of its first experiments, mentions that they burst on the public, and even on the scientific world, with all the effect of a new and unlooked-for phenomenon. A passage, whose average length by former conveyances had been thirty-six hours, was reduced by the railroad to two and a half; and the same writer mentions that he had seen a load of two hundred and thirty tons, gross, transported at the rate of twelve miles an hour.

So great an example was not lost upon our country, nor upon the citizens of our own state, a company of whom obtained a charter in January, 1828, for a railroad between Hamburg and Charleston, for which the first piles were driven in January, 1830. On this road, the first locomotive* in the United States was tried; and we may say, with pride, that it was the first road upon which one hundred miles in continuance was ever travelled by steam, and the first on which the mail was transported, in the Union. To say more of railroads, which are now extending themselves like a net-work, all over the United States, would be only repeating what is known to every one. Fifty years ago, we might as well have predicted that the compass would change its cardinal points, as that the city of New York, instead of looking to the Narrows for the latest intelligence from England, would find it brought to her through the Hudson, as did actually once occur, upon the arrival of the steamship Britannia, at Boston; although it is now invariably expedited by steam.

* She was called the "Best Friend;" tried first in December, 1830; burst her boiler in June, 1831.

The transportation of the mail having been incidentally mentioned, it is impossible, in this view of the subject, to over-estimate the importance of steam. To the United States, with an almost illimitable extent of territory, and comprehending in their mail arrangements upwards of fourteen thousand post-offices, its advantages are perfectly incalculable. Without its aid in expediting intelligence, in the present commercial state of the world, the intercourse of business would always be in arrear of its exigencies. A century ago, Philadelphia was the great centre of radiation. The western mail, which set out every Friday morning, arrived at New York on Sunday night. On Monday morning, it proceeded eastward, and arrived at Saybrook, Connecticut, on Thursday noon, where it was met by the Boston mail, which returned with the eastern letters, making the distance in time, between Boston and Philadelphia, nearly a fortnight. In addition, we might state the fact of having read a letter written in Philadelphia, on the 22d June, 1775, mentioning the intelligence "*just received,*" of "*a battle begun at Boston.*" Now the battle of Bunker's Hill was fought on the 16th; so that important intelligence, no doubt accelerated by despatch, did not reach Congress for six days. On this subject, facts are arguments; and the best commentary can be supplied by our daily experience. Among the speculations we have met with on the subject of steam, was one expressing wonder that so important a discovery should have so long remained dormant and unavailable, and that so great a blessing should have been so long withheld. To which it may be replied, that the rational endowments of man have been always the same. The same elements of improvement that now exist, have always been within the reach of enterprise and research. He has always been impelled by the same wants, and capable of the same enjoyments, that he now is; and it is his fault or his misfortune, not to have applied his energies with more success to those pursuits and inquiries which might have wrought out of these elements all that they were capable of producing for the supply of those wants, or the gratification of those pleasures. Again, Providence, in its wisdom, may have reserved this potent moral engine until every material was ready for its efficient operation—until men were prepared for it by the ameliorating and benign influence of Christianity—until, by means of the press, the seeds of truth and knowledge were sown in every land, and the discoveries of science, and the improvements of art and industry, should make it available for his All-wise and beneficent purposes. Now, what was the condition of the world when it first became sensible of the efficacy of steam as the great agent of navigation and locomotion? All the visions and hopes of science were about to be realized. Chemistry, electricity, galvanism, pneumatics, indeed, every branch of philosophy, were made to bear upon practical objects. *Utility* was the great desideratum of knowledge; nothing visionary or speculative, could become popular. Navigation was robbed of every danger and difficulty but that of the storm and the tempest. But yet something was wanting, which neither the compass nor calculation could supply. Winds were fickle, and currents inexorable. If there be an invention of man that can exhibit, more than any other, the control of mind over mere elemental nature, it is a skilfully managed ship. But a ship could not always calculate on that unfailing regularity, so necessary to the success of commerce. The moral and political condition of society was also favorable for the prevailing use of steam. Europe was just recovering from a long protracted and desolating war. New hopes

were dawning upon her; the auspices of peace were cheering; industry and enterprise sought new channels of employment; manufactures were to be established, and agriculture and commerce revived.

The situation of Great Britain, in whose manufacturing and commercial prosperity the whole world has an interest, was also peculiarly favorable to the operations of steam, as will be shown by a brief statement of facts. In 1790, the first steam-engine was used in Manchester. In 1824, more than two hundred were at work, and nearly thirty thousand power-looms. In 1784, eight bags of cotton were seized by the custom-house officers out of an American vessel arriving at Liverpool, under the conviction that they could not be the growth of America. In 1824, there were imported into Liverpool four hundred and nine thousand six hundred and seventy bags of cotton; and in 1845, fourteen hundred and thirty-seven thousand, from the United States alone. The United States, also, recovering from the effects of a recent war, found herself in the possession of incalculable resources, which were, comparatively, unavailable to her. Her lands were fertile, her population growing and industrious. But the length of her great rivers and the strength of their currents, denied to the agriculturist and the merchant the benefit of a reciprocal trade. The boats that went down the Mississippi could not return, but were broke up, and sold for what their materials would bring in New Orleans.

Then, again, our confederacy embraced every variety of soil, climate, and habit. Indeed, its basis was a concession of conflicting interests and prejudices. Many of its members were so widely separated from each other, as to be strangers to friendly or social intercourse. To harmonize such discordant elements, and to produce a union of sentiment at all analogous to the political union they possessed, was scarcely within the reach of legislation. Something was wanting to give a practical effect to the prominent theory of our government. The philanthropist regarded it as the last experiment of rational freedom, and trembled for the result. But an agent was at hand to bring everything into harmonious co-operation, to vanquish every obstacle, to crown all enterprise, to subdue prejudice, and to unite every part of our land in rapid and friendly communication; and that was *steam*. Itself the parent of other, and, perhaps, more important discoveries, it has promoted a spirit of practical investigation, as wide as the field that invites it. There are features in the *magnetic telegraph* that cannot belie its kindred. It is the eldest born of a great family which shall spring up to bless future generations. If the discovery of the electric fluid was immortalized by the line "*Eripuit fulmen cœlo*," what tribute can genius pay to that application of it by which thought can be conveyed to any given point, and replied to, with greater speed, (as has been actually ascertained,) than that of the earth in moving round its axis?

We have already seen a calculation of the effect of steam in abridging human labor. When we reflect how recently it has been brought into general use, and hear of its rapid progress and new modes of application, facts which mingle in the news of every day, the inquiry naturally occurs, what is to be its ultimate influence on the moral condition of man? Is he to be altogether relieved from the necessity of corporeal exertion, and to be permitted to enjoy the blessings of life without the price of labor? Is he to lose those pleasures of which industry is the source, and to be a stranger to rest because he has never borne a burthen? Will he be insured against the cravings of idleness, the languor of repose and apathy,

in short, will he be happier for "the golden secret, the sought '*kalon*' found?" But the reply is, that he will then have time for the cultivation and advancement of the higher qualities of his nature; that industry will have an exalted aim, that the mind and the heart will be the field of its operations; that he who now tills the earth or delves the mine, will labor only for the improvement of those faculties which he has in common with the most intelligent of his race; and that, as he was created in the full maturity of his moral powers, he will be again restored to the perfection of his nature. But such speculations (for speculations they are, and visionary, too,) would lead us into a maze of difficulty. Let us then pass to such views of the subject as are of more immediate and tangible interest.

1st. The abridgment of human labor to the extent we have seen, has certainly had the most disastrous effects in manufacturing countries. It has overthrown one of the great barriers against licentiousness, which is employment. It has strengthened the line of separation between the higher and lower classes of society; it has increased political discontent; it has weakened attachment to country, and forced the unhappy sufferers to expatriation, as their only refuge. Again, the accelerated action which steam gives to commerce, appears to have imparted a feverish and unhealthy rapidity to all its operations, and to have produced a restlessness unfavorable to the ordinary habits of business, and the staid maxims of prudence and reflection. Speculation, hazardous adventure, fictitious and borrowed capital, all take place of that old-fashioned plain dealing which once looked to a fortune as the reward of *a life* of thrift and regularity. May we not attribute much of that moral delinquency, which, of late years, has been so rife in our country, to that eagerness after gain which, looking only at its object, becomes indifferent to the means of attaining it?

Another objection, too much underrated, is the destruction of life and property occasioned by steam; an objection to which the navigation of the American waters has been peculiarly exposed. There is scarce a river or sound, or, indeed, any part of our extensive coast, that has not been the scene of fatal disaster. The frequency of its occurrence, has not only attracted the notice of foreign journals, but has been made the subject of particular investigation by our government; whose conclusion was, that no legislation is competent to remove the evil. And if its occurrence has been less frequent of late, it has been owing to the strong expression of indignation at the unskilfulness and recklessness from which it too often proceeded.

These are, certainly, deplorable evils. But what great revolution was ever unaccompanied by evil? Every sudden change in the policy and condition of society, must be convulsive; and when we reflect that it is not upon one or two nations, only, but upon the whole civilized world, that this change is now in progress; when we see industry diverted from its ancient channels by a new and unexpected agent; when we see the productiveness of time multiplied fifty fold, and the impediments of distance vanishing, and its limits contracted to a span before this formidable and triumphant engine; when we see it spreading civilization to the remotest corners of the earth, transplanting and naturalizing the literature of one country into another, and replenishing the garners of one people with the harvest of another's intellectual labors; indeed, when we regard the whole framework of society through a medium that magnifies its proportions to so gigantic a scale, can we be so far intoxicated with the prospect, as to

forget the frailty of human nature, and to expect neither moral nor physical evil from the operation of causes capable of producing such incalculable results? The only fear is, that such a flood of prosperity will overspread the face of the earth, as to endanger the landmarks of wisdom and fortitude, and to bear down the feeble resistance of prudence and economy. Indeed, when we connect the whole subject with the future prospects and destiny of men and of nations, when we think of the mighty revolutions to be accomplished in the moral and physical relations of society, of the change to be wrought throughout the world by this all-subduing agent, the mind is overwhelmed and lost, as if in the contemplation of endless time, or immeasurable space.

We have now viewed it as the consummation of all that could be aspired to by human skill and energy, practical in its operations, but creating an element for intellectual and moral enterprise. We have seen it boldly assailing the great engine of tyranny, by imparting knowledge wherever its influence extends, changing the economy of nations by new modes of industry, and substituting a different standard of elevation and prosperity from that of mere toil and drudgery. We have seen it, regardless of opposition, making for itself a pathway through the ocean, with lightning speed. It has been presented to us as the great pacificator of nations, brightening the auspices of harmony and friendship, and strengthening their mutual prosperity by a common basis. And can the imagination conceive its future influence upon this continent, with its mighty population, governed by the same laws, and speaking the same language. Wherever steam, vanquishing the currents of its longest rivers, and bringing its remotest limits into contiguity, compassing every part of it, and opening up every spring of prosperity, calling mind everywhere into competition, hurrying on the progress of intellect, assimilating the people in sentiment and habit, ought we not to glory in the privilege of being in the very midst of an influence so potent and pervading, and, withal, so benign; of being ourselves its subjects, seeing, hearing, and feeling it at every turn? And shall we be wanting in gratitude to the Giver of all good for bestowing on our generation what has been withheld from all that have preceded it, and make no effort to become worthy of so signal a distinction? Let it be remembered that steam, expansive as it is, and capable of such wonderful effects, is but the vapor of a simple element discovered and applied by the ingenuity of man, and, therefore, obedient to the control of his will. *His* is the responsibility for its abuse as an agent, a responsibility which would be aggravated in proportion to his knowledge of the happy results it is capable of producing.

If the steam-ship, as we have been endeavoring to show, is emphatically the offspring of peace, and, above all other human contrivances, calculated to spread the tidings of good-will amongst men, and to make them—

> "Live brother-like, in amity combined,
> And unsuspicious faith,"

how ought the philanthropist to grieve at finding it converted into an engine of offensive war, calculated to aggravate its horrors, and to make it more sanguinary and desolating! But far be the day when steam shall be used as an engine of destruction—when that which has hitherto been the harbinger of peace, shall be converted into a weapon to enforce the *law of violence*. Have all the hopes of the patriot been but an airy vision, seen only to be dissipated? Are the calculations of philosophy to end in disap-

pointment? Is society to witness the sudden termination of those impulses which have been advancing its best interests? If that beautiful moral fabric which is rising in grandeur before an admiring world, should be assailed by its own architect, its ornaments mutilated, and its proportions destroyed, where, ever, can be found the master-hand to restore it?

## Art. II.—THE CITY OF TROY, NEW YORK:

### ITS COMMERCE, MANUFACTURES, AND RESOURCES.

The city of Troy is situated upon the easterly bank of the Hudson river, one hundred and fifty miles above the city of New York, and at the head of the natural navigation of the river. Sixty years ago, the plat upon which the city now stands, comprised three estates, owned by three brothers, and occupied as farms. Where now the varied monuments of wealth and art display their imposing forms, for the distance of a mile and a half along the river, nothing then was seen but the grazing of the herds, the quiet labors of the husbandman, or the barren plain, deemed of too little value to deserve enclosure. In 1786, the village of Troy was first surveyed into building lots. The original proprietors, with a foresight highly creditable, laid it out with a view of its becoming a place of considerable magnitude. The city of Philadelphia, with its regular squares and streets, was adopted, so far as the curvatures of the river and the surface of the ground would permit, as the model.

Ashley's ferry, as it had previously been called, had, for some time, been looked to, by sagacious men, as the true location for a place of business. Very soon the erection of houses and stores, and the building of wharves and vessels, gave an impulse to the new village. Lansingburgh, situated three miles farther up the river, was then in its vigor. Most unfortunately for that place, after years of prosperity, it began to be apparent that it was located *above* the natural navigation of the river, and that a continuance of navigation so high, could only be insured by expensive *artificial aids*. A considerable number of the most enterprising citizens of that village, appreciating the superior local advantages of Troy, soon after removed hither, and thus added to the resources of the eastern immigrants already here, a valuable and important part of the capital and influence of the former place. From this time, the new village progressed steadily in all the elements of a firm and healthy growth.

It was not incorporated as a village until 1801. In 1816, the legislature granted it a city charter, with the usual powers and privileges of such incorporations.

In June, 1820, a dreadful conflagration laid in ashes from seventy to eighty stores and dwellings, in one of the most important sections of the city, and consumed large amounts of merchandise and other property, destroying the value of hundreds of thousands of dollars. Notwithstanding this heavy and sudden calamity, no diminution of the advancement and prosperity of the city was discoverable. The chasm caused by the fire was, in an inconceivably short time, filled up with buildings more valuable and substantial than before, thus giving a severe but certain evidence of the solidity of its growth. Indeed, it is quite certain that this dispensation was, ultimately, no disadvantage to the city. It tried and developed its re-

sources, and proved them adequate to the fearful exigency. It taught the frailty of the tenure of human possessions. It excited to caution, prudence, industry and frugality. The confidence inspired at home and abroad, the savings accumulated, and the greater security in the mode of building induced, have, long ago, more than indemnified for all the losses.

The year 1825 was rendered memorable by the completion of the Erie and Champlain Canals, uniting the immense *western* inland seas, and the waters of the Champlain, with the tide waters of the Hudson. The northern trade—a trade which the Champlain Canal was designed to foster—had always been enjoyed by Troy. By this beneficial improvement, that trade was not only greatly increased by quickened facilities, and new developments, but the markets of the place were thrown open to the trade of the immense regions of the great West, from which it had hitherto been almost excluded. The original design of the legislature of the state was fully executed when these canals were completed to this point. That brought them to the *tide*, which was *all* that had been undertaken or promised. Had these improvements stopped here, it is impossible to say what advantages it might have given to Troy over other places in its vicinity. The wisdom and justice of the legislature were never more clearly evinced than by continuing the Junction Canal to Albany. While equal advantages were thus conferred on both cities, both were thrown on their own resources, in a course of competition calculated to develop their utmost energies, and an effectual guard was set up against commercial monopoly. By it, the benefits of the two markets, under the constant influence of such a competition, was secured to the whole people, north and west, having, or to have, commercial relations along the great channels of intercommunication.

That Troy has not failed to profit by the vast benefits of these improvements, is abundantly manifest by the rapid increase of its population, upon their completion, having more than doubled in the first ten years. It may safely be asserted that the growth of its commerce, during the same period, was in a ratio still greater, and that there was an unprecedented extension and multiplication of other pursuits.

About the year 1835, the first railroad terminating in this city was constructed, connecting it with Ballston Spa. Soon after, the common use of the track of the Schenectady and Saratoga railroad, from the latter place to Saratoga Springs, was fully and permanently secured by the corporation owning the former road, virtually extending its railway to that village. Subsequently, the Schenectady and Troy, and the Troy and Greenbush railroads have been completed, with a heavy iron rail, in the most substantial manner, connecting Troy with the great line of railways from the Hudson river to lake Erie, on the one hand, and on the other to Boston, New Haven, and Bridgeport, and furnishing the *only continuous* track between the *East* and the *West*. An extension of the line from Saratoga Springs to Lake Champlain is now in progress, under a charter obtained some years ago, with every promise of completion, in 1847. Within a short time, a direct line of railway from the city of New York, it may be predicted with confidence, will be completed, to connect with the track of the Troy and Greenbush. Here, again, between the *South* and the *North*, will be the *only* continuous track.

It is worthy of remark, that the Troy and Greenbush railway, of only six miles in length, will, when the remaining portions of the line from

New York to Lake Champlain shall have been completed, be the central connecting link between the two great systems of railroads through the Northern States, from the Atlantic to the great lakes, and from the Southern States to Canada.

The several railroads terminating at this point, have been, agreeably to the policy of our state, constructed, and are still owned, by joint-stock companies, the stock of which, with the exception of a portion of the Troy and Greenbush, has been taken and is held by the citizens and the corporation of the city of Troy. The amount invested in these improvements is about $1,500,000.

In 1835–6, years so remarkable for speculations in "paper cities" and "corner lots," fortunately but little influence was experienced from the prevailing mania here. A few, only, of our citizens engaged in the wild enterprises of the day, and but inconsiderable portions of its territory became the subject of speculation. The blight of this desolating hurricane passed over the city very lightly.

From 1837 to 1842, the severe revulsions in commerce and currency with which our country was, from time to time, visited, pressed heavily upon Troy. No period, since the close of the revolutionary war, has been distinguished by a monetary pressure so severe, and so destructive to the fortunes and the credit of individuals, as this. At different times, during this period, bankruptcy almost literally overwhelmed the whole country. Although, in common with others, great losses were sustained by the depreciation of property and the general depression of business, yet but very few bankruptcies occurred, and the regular and constant growth of the city is attested by its continued increase of population; an increase which, from 1835 to 1845, equalled 28 per cent.

The gradual but constant increase of population, from the earliest history of the city, exhibiting one of the essential elements of its advancement, will be seen, at a glance, by the following table:—

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| In 1801, the number of inhabitants were estimated at..... | | | | | 2,000 |
| In 1810, by the census of that year, there were..... | | | | | 3,895 |
| 1820, | " | " | " | ..... | 5,268 |
| 1825, | " | " | " | ..... | 7,879 |
| 1830, | " | " | " | ..... | 11,556 |
| 1835, | " | " | " | ..... | 16,959 |
| 1840, | " | " | " | ..... | 19,334 |
| 1845, | " | " | " | ..... | 21,709 |

While this increase has been going on in Troy, the village of West Troy, on the opposite bank of the Hudson, has grown up, chiefly since the completion of the canals, and is now in the first class of villages in the state.

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| In 1835, that place contained over | | | | 3,000 | inhabitants. |
| 1840, | " | " | " | 5,000 | " |
| 1845, | " | " | " | 7,000 | " |

For all business purposes and objects, both the places are one. The staple commercial interest of that village is the trade in lumber, carried on in connexion with the commerce of this city, and, to a considerable extent, by its citizens. Thus, for all these purposes and objects, we have a population of about thirty thousand souls.

In 1801, the first bank—the Farmers'—was chartered, with a capital of

$350,000, but a small part of which was paid in, and located between Troy and Lansingburg, for the accommodation of both places. Within a few years, this bank was removed to Troy, and the number since has been increased to five, with a capital of *one and a half millions* of dollars; and even these are often found insufficient to furnish all the facilities of this nature required by the business of the place.

Trade and navigation have ever been the leading objects of pursuit by the citizens of Troy. Formerly, but little regard, comparatively, was paid to the development of other interests, for which such vast resources were known to exist, except the manufacture of flour.

As years rolled on, the vessels owned here, and employed in the transit of passengers and freight to and from New York, became a numerous fleet. In 1833, the whole number was ascertained to be eighty-nine, and that the property freighted up and down on the Hudson for Troy account, was two hundred and thirty-two thousand tons. In 1834, the number of vessels had risen to one hundred, of which seven were steamers. Since that time, the number and capacity of the river craft has steadily increased. In 1841, the whole number owned above Albany, and employed on the river, was one hundred and nineteen; viz:

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 86 masted vessels, | 7,994 | tons. |
| 22 tow-boats, | 4,936 | " |
| 7 steam towing boats, | 2,460 | " |
| 4 " passenger " | 1,455 | " |
| | 16,845 | " |
| Add foreign tonnage trading to Troy, | 11,600 | " |
| Making a total of | 28,535 | " |

In 1843, the number of steamboats owned in Troy had increased to 14, having a tonnage of 6,066 tons. The whole number of steamboats, tow-boats, and sailing vessels, trading to Troy by the river, foreign and domestic, was 267; the tonnage 31,627 tons, and the freight transported, 292,500 tons. This was exclusive of canal-boats, which entered the Hudson, and were towed to and from New York, by Troy steamers. These were estimated this year at 350, with a tonnage of 21,000 tons, making the total tonnage of the year 52,627 tons.

There have been several additions, subsequently, to the river craft, but the precise amount the writer is unable to state.

The comparative increase in the number of vessels owned and employed here, or even in the tonnage, which, by the enlarged size of vessels built in later years, shows a greater advance, gives no true index of the increase of navigation. The adoption of boats towed by steam, for the transport of freight, nearly double the capacity of the same vessel by the saving of time. The annual average number of trips to and from New York, is found to be sixteen for sailing vessels, while that of tow-boats is thirty. It is, therefore, quite certain the relative capacity has fully doubled within the last thirty years.

The tonnage of Troy now exceeds, and has, for many years, that of any other town on the Hudson, except the city of New York, exclusive of the vessels coming from other towns and states, whose arrival and departure so often enliven our wharves.

But the river navigation is only a part of that with which we are connected. Added to it is the constant arrival and departure of a vast num-

ber of boats employed in navigating the canals. By the returns from the canal collector's office in West Troy, it appears that the number of boats entered and cleared at that office, and passing into the river, or from it, at this place, in 1834, was 9,148. In 1843, the number entered and cleared through the old and the new side-cuts, was 15,347. In estimating the increase of the canal trade during this period, regard should also be had to the enlarged capacity of boats of more recent construction, an enlargement equalling 25 to 50 per cent.

Public documents from the canal office, present the canal trade in several other aspects, both interesting and instructive. In 1834, the property from the interior, entered at the collector's office at West Troy, was 237,354 tons, and that cleared from the same office, for the interior, was 50,472 tons. In 1843, the property arriving at *tide waters*, say Albany and Troy, was 836,861 tons, as given by the annual report of the Canal Fund Commissioners. By the same document, the tolls collected at Albany was $274,495, and at West Troy, $291,647. Adopting the proportion between these two sums as the true proportion of the number of tons entered at each office, it gives 409,286 tons for Albany, and 427,575 for West Troy. The property cleared this year from this place, was 101,728 tons. We have then 427,575 tons entered this year, against 232,354 in 1834, and 101,728 tons, against 56,472 cleared. This comparison might be continued, but let it suffice to say that, in 1845, the property arriving at tide waters, was 1,204,943 tons. The tolls collected at Albany, $340,669, and at West Troy, $386,914. By the data above adopted, this gives 564,179 tons for Albany, and 640,764 for West Troy. The value of the property thus arriving in 1845, was $45,452,301. The tolls collected this year, $340,669 at Albany, and $386,914 at West Troy. By the same proportion, the property arriving at Albany was $21,281,683, and at West Troy, $24,170,168. The value of property sent up the canals this year, was $17,754,796, from Albany, and $24,503,692 from West Troy. This gives the total value of the canal trade of Troy for 1845, as follows:

| | |
|---|---|
| Property arrived at West Troy,..... | $24,170,618 |
| " forwarded from " ..... | 24,503,692 |
| Total,..... | $48,674,310 |

It may be said a part of this large value passes to and from the canal, direct to New York, by canal-boats. This is true to a limited extent; but it will be found that the great bulk of it is either trans-shipped at Troy, or bought and sold in its market.

The amount of canal tolls collected in West Troy, was, in

| 1834, | 1836, | 1838, | 1840, | 1842, | 1844, | 1845, |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| $133,125 | $160,248 | $182,516 | $186,947 | $204,215 | $321,532 | $386,914 |

Here, again, it should be remembered that the increase of trade is not fully shown. The rate of tolls has been, from time to time, reduced; and since the first period, the reduction has equalled 30 per cent, or more.

But though the canal trade is of the first importance, it is, by no means, the whole trade of this market. That coming by railroad and land carriage, is large, and highly valuable. It was estimated by a committee of judicious citizens, who made investigation some ten years ago, to have

doubled in four or five years. Though the growth of this trade may have been obstructed in some points, by the diversion caused by new lines of railway at the East and South, there has, doubtless, been a very considerable increase in it. At that time, it was ascertained that within the territory thus trading here, were 70 cotton factories, consuming 3,500,000 pounds of cotton annually; 40 woollen factories, consuming 1,000,000 pounds of wool, annually, besides various other manufactures, producing, in the aggregate, a large amount; and, besides, the immense value of the products of grazing agriculture, furnished by the same district. It was, at the same time, ascertained that the product of the different manufactures coming to this market from three or four towns alone, in the vicinity, was more than half a million.

The amount of the direct commerce of this city, exclusive of the transshipments here, cannot be stated with certainty, but the estimate of another committee of citizens in 1840, may be relied on as giving it with sufficient accuracy at that time. They reported the sales of

| | |
|---|---|
| Merchandize, including coal, to be | $7,400,000 |
| Wool, hides, and leather, | 800,000 |
| Lumber, | 700,000 |
| | $8,900,000 |
| To which should be added the beef and pork packed at, and in the vicinity of Troy, 63,500 barrels, say, | 500,000 |
| Wheat, manufactured and forwarded in bulk, 1,000,000 bushels, | 1,000,000 |
| Other grains, the product of the dairy, and other agricultural productions, not estimated, but may, with great safety, be stated at | 600,000 |
| Showing a total of | $11,000,000 |

The increase since 1840, has carried it up, probably, at this time, to more than $12,000,000 annually.

The various manufactures and mechanic arts carried on within the limits of the city, have created an interest which already begins to vie with that of commerce in importance, and every advancing year, they must become, relatively, more and more important. That these interests are destined to become the essential elements of our prosperity and stability, if, indeed, they are not already so, there can be no doubt. By the development of new and improved facilities of intercourse, trade is always liable to change. It has a constant tendency to concentrate in the great marts of the country. But the natural resources of a place, required for manufacturing, cannot be removed. If brought into use at all, it must be where nature has formed them.

No branch of manufactures has had a more invigorating influence on the prosperity of the city than that of flour. The flouring mills owned and employed by our citizens in the year 1836, and located within the city and its immediate vicinity, were found to require 1,000,000 bushels of wheat, annually, to keep them in constant operation.

Since that period an active competition has arisen, by the erection and operation of mills in the great wheat districts of the west. Possessing, as they do, the advantage of the cheaper freight of the manufactured over the unmanufactured staple, they have served to check the increase of this manufacture, and, in some cases, to change the machinery of some of our flouring establishments to that of factories for other purposes. But notwithstanding this slight reaction, other kinds of manufucturing have grown

up faster than flouring has declined, and at this moment the capital and labor employed, and amount produced, in this department of business, is larger and more on the advance than it ever has been before.

The necessary supplies of the flouring mills invite to this market the staple production of the largest and most valuable portion of the great west, and thus secures a valuable trade with that region. Besides this, the fabrications of iron, cotton and wool, the manufacture of carriages, leather, cordage, steam-engines, machinery, paper, tallow-chandlery, burr, hats, shoes, furriery, &c., including a long list of minor productions, furnishes employment and support to a large number of citizens, and the profitable investment of large amounts of capital. The annual value of these products of our factories and workshops was found, in 1836, to amount to $2,000,000.

Referring to and correcting the census of 1845, it appears there were then in operation in the city, and its vicinity, and owned by its citizens, nine flouring mills, three cotton factories, one woollen factory, five iron foundries, and one very large one in the course of erection; two iron-works for wrought iron, producing from 6,000 to 7,000 tons annually, and another in progress of larger capacity than either of those in operation; two rope factories, one paper-mill, five tanneries, two breweries, three carriage factories, producing rail-cars, post-coaches, and family carriages, to a large amount, &c. &c. To this might be added a long list of other work-shops; but the detail would extend to too great length. What has been the increase in these productions within the last ten years, the writer cannot state with certainty, but does not hesitate to estimate the present amount at $3,000,000.

In the abundance of its *water-power*, Troy, and its vicinity stand unrivalled. It is believed no other place in the Union can command so great an available supply. The large requisition already made upon it is but a mere trifle, compared to what remains unoccupied. It doubtless far exceeds the conceptions of any of our citizens who have not given especial attention to the subject. The estimates presented on this point are from the calculations of Professors Eaton and Hall, of the Rensselaer Institute, made public in 1834. The data for these calculations were obtained by actual admeasurements, taken in the month of August in that year, during one of the most severe droughts with which this section of the country had been visited for many years. The result, therefore, may be considered the minimum amount in the most unpropitious seasons. The maximum, or even the ordinary average, must be much greater. The estimate is of the power within the corporate bounds of the city, and its immediate vicinity—all so near and of such location that Troy must always be the centre, and can, with proper diligence, always furnish the supplies and sell the products. The mill to which the estimate is applicable, is the flouring mill of four run of stones, capable of grinding four hundred bushels per day. The factory is the common cotton factory of average capacity, and supposed to require but half the power of the mill.

| | Mills. | Factories. |
|---|---|---|
| The waters of the Hudson and the Mohawk, in the pond formed by the State dam, were found to furnish power sufficient for..... | 50 | 100 |
| The south branch of the Mohawk,..... | 4 | 8 |

| | Mills. | Factories. |
|---|---|---|
| The Mohawk above the Hudson, to and including Cohoe's Falls,..... | 196 | 392 |
| The Porstimkill Creek,..... | 12 | 24 |
| The Wynantskill Creek,..... | 20 | 40 |
| Giving the astonishing amount of power, equal to operating..... | 282 | 564 |

And this estimate is not loosely made, but with due reference to head and full, upon exact mathematical principles. Its accuracy challenges unqualified belief. Here, then, are physical resources that cannot be exhausted, when the city shall count her population by hundreds of thousands.

A slight examination of the resources and advantages of Troy must convince every reflective mind that it is most highly privileged—that nature has been lavish in her favors—that it has a mission and destiny that may well incite a high ambition. Its location upon the bank of the Hudson, the noblest of rivers, unrivalled by any other on this continent, or probably in the world, for the cheap and extended facilities of natural navigation it furnishes, is most happy. Connected by tide navigation with the Atlantic ocean, a foreign trade, bounded only by the limits of the waves, and ambition of its citizens, is always open to it. But more especially that great improvement of modern times—steam navigation, unites it by a ten hour's sail with the great emporium of the Union, and the completion of the railway already spoken of, will reduce still farther the time between the two places. As a necessary consequence, intimate commercial relations must always exist with New York. It will always profit by the central position and immense trade of that city, and by the impulses of her advancement.

Its position at the head of tide waters—in this case the natural head of sloop and steamboat navigation, gives another advantage which no other point can equal. Here navigation by river craft must end, and here, by the unrivalled cheapness of natural navigation, it must always tend. This cause cannot fail constantly to invite and influence to this point, for transshipment, the greater part of the freights passing up and down on the canals. Such a tendency and such a result is practically and most conclusively shown, by the constant comparative increase of property entered and cleared at the collector's office at West Troy, over that of the office at Albany—a fact already presented.

That natural resources, however abundant, can never become available to the wealth and comfort of a people, without those more important moral ones, which enable them to understand, to appreciate and to control them, is properly admitted. But that Troy, though too deficient in this behalf, has not been entirely unmindful of its duty, will be seen by referring a moment to what she has done for religious, moral, and educational objects. In 1792, the first church was erected, for the joint use of several sects. It became the first Presbyterian church. By the census of 1845, we learn the number of churches has increased to twenty-seven, costing $350,000; the number of incorporated institutions of learning was four; the public schools twelve, and the private and select schools thirty-nine.

In recurring to, and further considering the commercial resources, which

by the wise and diligent use of the means placed in our hands, can be made available for the future advancement and prosperity of Troy, we are naturally led to regard as essentially tributary to that end, the fertility, extent, and multiplied adaptation of the great and growing west, and the inexhaustible mountains of iron ore at the north. These mines—more valuable to our country than those of gold, over the whole continent, are scarcely beginning to be wrought, and yet within the district trading to this market, it is believed there are already more than one hundred forges and furnaces in operation. We can no more fix future limits to the product and profit of these mining interests than we can to the future expansion and capacities of the almost boundless west—where, notwithstanding its unprecedented growth, there yet is room for empires to rise and flourish.

One more consideration in conclusion. A vast unoccupied water-power has been shown. In connection with it, our navigable and railway communications, the economy with which materials for fabrication can be brought, and the fabric dispersed to distant markets, abroad as well as at home, the reduced cost of subsistence, and means of comfort at command—all, all deserve our grave regard. With these advantages, unsurpassed by those of any other place, it will be apparent that the greater part of the various manufacturing pursuits, which are, or may be carried on here, need not be limited in their products to the demands of this, or any other single market, but may enter into successful competition with the most distant markets, both of this and foreign lands.

## Art. III.—PROTECTION OF SHIPS FROM LIGHTNING.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE AND COMMERCIAL REVIEW.

THE Merchants' Magazine has a wide circulation among commercial men, and is therefore a proper medium through which to communicate to that class of our citizens, the important facts which I have here to state. The loss of human life on board of vessels, by lightning, has been great. The destruction of vessels by lightning is not uncommon, and damage to ships by lightning is of very frequent occurrence. If protection can be had, it is certainly a matter of vast importance to seek that protection. A neglect of this, would, under the circumstances, seem to be wholly inexcusable.

The ship-owner, reflecting on his pillow that his own neglect to provide lightning rods to his vessel, had been the cause of the death of a single individual on board his vessel, would give him disquietude for the remainder of his days.

I have heard of but two objections made to providing vessels with lightning conductors; one of these is, that the rods attract the lightning, and the other, that they afford no protection. I feel a confidence of being able to answer both of these objections most fully. First, *as to protection.*

In 1839, the English Parliament organized a Commission to examine into the cases of damage by lightning to the public vessels belonging to the British navy; that Commission was composed of the following persons, viz:—Rear Admiral T. A. Griffiths, Chairman; Rear Admiral Sir J. Gordon, K. C. B.; Captain James Clarke, R. F. R. N.; Professor Donnell, F. R. S.; Mr. John Finchman, Master Shipwright; Walter Clifton, Esq., Secretary.

This Commission devoted much time to the labors of their investigation, and made an elaborate report, in the conclusion of which they say: "*And no instance, so far as we are aware of, has ever occurred of a ship sustaining injury when struck by lightning, if the conductor was up to the mast-head, and the continuity uninterrupted to the water.*"

On the 25th of July, 1843, I addressed a letter to the Hon. David Henshaw, Secretary of the Navy, making inquiry as to the extent of the damage by lightning to vessels of the American Navy, and received from him a reply, of which the following is a copy:

"NAVY DEPARTMENT, August 2, 1843.

"Sir:—Upon the receipt of your letter of the 25th ult., making inquiry as to the sufficiency of the lightning conductors used on board our public vessels, I referred it to the chief of one of the Bureaux, for information as to their practical operation.

"I am informed that the lightning conductors, now, and heretofore in use, have been found to answer well. *None of our ships have ever been injured by lightning if the conductors were up.* Whether the rods may be reduced or enlarged, it would be difficult to say, until experiments have been made to test the point.

"I am, very respectfully, your obedient servant,

"DAVID HENSHAW."

"E. MERIAM, Esq., Brooklyn."

Subsequently, I addressed a note to Captain Stringham, commandant of the U. S. Navy Yard, Brooklyn, making inquiry as to the size of the lightning conductors used on board of public ships in the American Navy, and received from him a reply, of which the following is a copy:

"COMMANDANT'S OFFICE, NAVY YARD,
"BROOKLYN, August 10, 1843.

"Sir:—In reply to your note, I have to state that the iron used for conductors of vessels of war, in the Navy, is of the following dimensions, viz:

"For sloops of war, one-quarter of inch in diameter.

"For frigates, and ships of the line, five-sixteenths of an inch.

"Respectfully, your obedient servant,

"S. H. STRINGHAM."

"E. MERIAM, Esq., Brooklyn."

I have kept a record of lightning storms for a number of years, and of the damage done by lightning, and of the destruction of life and property. The catalogue now numbers more than four hundred cases of loss of life, or injury, and loss of property, *but I have never yet found a case of injury to a human being in a vessel, or building, protected by any kind of metallic conductor, reared for the purpose of protection.*

Second,—*as to metallic rods attracting the lightning.* In the investigation of cases of damage by lightning on board of British armed ships, by the Commission created by Parliament, it was ascertained by an examination of the log-book, that there were 174 cases; of these

47 were line of battle ships,
49 frigates,
17 brigs, and a cutter.

Of these 68 were struck on the main-mast; mizzen-mast, 5; fore-mast, 28; bowsprit, 1; fore and main, 6; main and mizzen, 50; 61, particulars not mentioned.

Of about 100 cases, it was found that the number of persons killed, was 62; and wounded, 114; exclusive of one case, in which the number killed

is stated as "several;" and exclusive of the case of the frigate Resistance, of 44 guns, in which but four persons were saved.

Of the spars damaged and destroyed, 92 were lower masts, 82 were top-masts, 60 top-gallant-masts, 1 royal, and 1 bowsprit.

Numerous letters were addressed to the Commission by British naval officers, highly commending lightning conductors. I have not room to give any of those, but I will give an extract from one written by Capt. W. H. Smith, R. N., as follows:

"My own opinion of the conducting power of METALLIC WIRES, and therefore, the vast utility of lightning conductors, indifferent as their construction and adaptation seemed to be, was very strong in their favor; and I have labored hard to propagate this feeling, in opposition to their being dangerous from attracting the lightning, an opinion which cannot but be deemed absurd, since it infers that the masts, and not the ships, form a point in the electric surface. Indeed, it would be a comfort to the service, as well as an enormous saving in spars, canvass and gear, were the laws and indications of meteorology more strictly attended to.

"During many years passed at sea, I have known of several disasters occasioned by lightning, and also of several ships being struck, and escaping destruction as if by a miracle. This led me to consider the subject; and in my written orders, the officer of the watch was directed, whenever the weather appeared threatening, whether at sea or in port, to hoist the conductor, which was kept (not in a store-room,) in a box fixed to the stool of the after main-top-mast back-stay, and both officers and men were carefully instructed to place it so that the spindle should be well above the truck, and the chain carried into the water, clear of the cross-trees, top and channels, by *out-riggers*.

"Under these precautions, I feel a confidence tantamount to conviction, that at least the spars of His Majesty's ship under my command, were saved in several thunder-storms which she encountered in the Gulf of Lyons, the Adriatic and Ionian seas, and in the Lesser Syrtis, the electric fluid having been seen to descend the chain and pass overboard into the sea, without damage to the ship.

"I happened to be on board the Queen, of 74 guns, when an electric discharge shivered her main-top-mast to chips, and fatally damaged her main-mast, in the harbor of Messina, in 1815. On this occasion I remarked to Sir Charles Penrose, who had his flag flying on board of her, that the amount of the injury now inflicted, *would supply all the ships in commission with lightning conductors*. If I remember rightly, this ship carried the useless and dangerous appendage of a spindle, upon her truck."

It will be borne in mind that none of the vessels which were in port, and on board of which persons were killed or wounded, were furnished with conductors.

The public ships are furnished with abundance of metallic guns, of great weight, but I have heard of no instance of the lightning leaving the metallic wire for a larger metallic body, nor of any case where the lightning has done damage to an iron ship or to an iron hawser.

If the iron attracted the lightning to a very great extent, then we should find numerous cases of damage in warehouses where iron is stored in large quantities. I have never heard of but one building used for storing iron being struck by lightning, and this was a storehouse in Rochester.

I have on my lightning register the account of five steamboats, struck by lightning. The damage to each was very trifling. This is very few, considering the great number of this class of vessels. I hear, however, of but four railroads that have been struck by lightning, which is equally extraordinary, when it is considered that these kind of roads extend for hundreds—I might say thousands of miles. These facts, I think, dispose of the difficulty arising from the attractive properties of the iron as being

dangerous. I now proceed to give you some extracts from my register, as follows:

The passengers and crew of the brig Sultana, which was burned by lightning, in January, 1841, near the coast of Borneo, have arrived at Singapore, after sufferings of the severest kind, from the petty rajahs and pirates.—*Journal of Commerce, Feb. 25th*, 1842.

The ship Rowland, (of Portland,) from Savannah, bound to Havre, was struck by lightning on February 14th, 1842, lat. 46, lon. 26, and took fire between decks; but, by throwing part of the cargo overboard, and cutting holes through the decks, the fire was extinguished after raging sixteen hours.

The ship Olive and Eliza, of Portsmouth, New Hampshire, laden with cotton, bound from St. Joseph's to Liverpool, was struck by lightning on the 11th March. The ship took fire, and bore away for the Western Islands. Arrived at Fayal the 19th. After great effort to extinguish the fire, she was scuttled, and the fire subdued. All that appeared to be burnt of the hull, were the lower deck beams, and about ten feet of the deck on the starboard side. The loss of cotton will be heavy from the fire and water. It is believed the vessel will be worthy of repairing.

The brig Romulus, of Providence, Rhode Island, bound to Boston, from Savannah, while on the rocks, about a mile and a quarter from Savannah, was struck by lightning, May 31st, 1842, which shivered the royal-mast, and rent the heel of the main-top-mast, took the coating off the main-mast, slightly split the deck in several places, and then went off from the forward part of the vessel. No one on board injured.

Bark Champion, of Boston, while lying at the wharf at Charleston, July 25th, was struck by lightning. The fluid entered the main-royal-mast, and passed down to the main-mast, and, tearing off the pump coats, passed off. No person injured.

In a thunder squall at New Orleans, on July 27th, ship Gosseyplum, lying opposite the vegetable market, was struck by lightning, and had one of her masts badly splintered; no one injured. Bremen ship, Albert, was struck, and her fore-royal-mast shattered. Schooner Joseph Gorham was also struck, and had one of her masts entirely shattered, but no person on board injured.

1842.

On the 20th of July, the schooner Maria was struck by lightning at New Orleans. It carried away her main-top-mast, shivering her main-mast, and passed through the centre-case, setting it on fire. It was only through the exertions of the crew that the vessel was saved from being consumed. Captain Eldrickson was, at the time, leaning against the main-mast, and was saved by the chain of the centre-board attracting the fluid.

On the 22d of July, the schooner Saul, from Boston, for Savannah, when off Plymouth, was struck by lightning, and the captain, who was at the helm, was struck senseless. Shortly after, smoke was seen to issue from the hatchways, and, on removing them, the flames burst forth with such fury that the crew had barely time to escape to their boats.

On the 26th of July, the lightning struck the fore-top-gallant-mast of the brig Woodstock, lying at Savannah. The top-gallant-mast was split in pieces. The blocks on the top-sail-yard were also split, and both clews of the top-sail were set on fire. The rain, however, which was falling in torrents at the time, soon extinguished the fire without much damage. The lightning descended down the top-sail tie to the top-sail sheets, which were of iron, and thence to the deck of the vessel, following the chain cable, which was lying across the deck, and passing off at the side. The links of the chain of the top-sail sheet, were scattered in all directions over the deck. The captain, mate, and another person, were in the cabin at the time, but fortunately received no harm.

In July, the ship Saxon, of Salem, while lying in the port of Havana, had two main-top-masts in the course of ten days.

On the 1st of August, the ship Sigenia, in latitude 48° 42′, longitude 71° 10′, at half-past three, A. M., experienced a severe tempest, during which the lightning struck the main-mast, and shivered it to pieces, together with the main-royal-

yards; also damaged the main and top-gallant-masts, and yards attached, burnt the main-top-gallant-sails and cut two large holes in the main-top-sails. It then went between decks, started up three of her between-deck planks, and split one of her deck planks. During the shock, the mate and one man were knocked down, and the mate slightly injured.

On the 8th of August, the brig Comet, at New Haven, was struck with lightning, which passed down the fore-mast, and then took to the chain cable, following it through the hawser hole into the water. But little damage was done.

1843.

On the 22d of April, as the Joan of Arc was descending the river between Louisville and Cincinnati, the captain, who was giving orders to land the boat, was struck senseless by a flash of lightning, and fell on to the lower guards. He remained insensible until the next morning, but finally recovered. No one else was hurt, and no damage done to the boat.

In June, the mast of a British vessel in Cleveland, was struck by lightning, but no great damage was done.

In August, the schooner Joy, from Boston, was struck by lightning, near the head of the Rappahannock, and had her main-top-mast shivered.

On the 22d of August, the brig Hudson was struck by lightning at St. Domingo, which passed down the fore-top-gallant-mast, fore-top-mast, shivered all the spars on fore-mast, tore up two of the deck planks, and then passed off without injuring any of the crew.

On the 2d of September, brig Rupert, from Martinique, for Bangor, was struck by lightning. The fluid struck the fore-royal-mast head, injuring every spar between that and the deck, except the fore-top-mast yard.

On the 14th of September, a boat in the Wappsahut, containing two negroes, was struck by lightning. One of the negroes was killed, the other was stunned for some time, but shortly after recovered.

1844.

On the 23d of April, schooner Edward Burley, of Beverly, was struck by lightning, while lying at Dix Cove, Africa, which badly injured the head of fore-mast, and shattered the main-mast, so that it was of no further use; was supplied with a spare top-mast from United States' ship Saratoga, for a jury-mast.

Same day, bark Palestine, of Boston, was struck while lying at Adamboo; damage not ascertained.

On the 2d of May, a boat belonging to one of the lines, was struck by lightning, in the Chesapeake bay, and partially damaged. Many of the passengers were greatly alarmed, but none of them sustained injury.

On the 4th of May, the sloop Orion from New York, for Providence, was struck by lightning off Point Judith, in seven fathoms water; the crew were knocked down by the shock, and when they recovered, the sloop was in three fathoms only. The lightning shivered the top-mast very badly, splitting it all to pieces, carried away the peak halliards, jib halliards, split jib, and passed away through the forecastle. Fortunately the crew were all aft at the time, so that no lives were lost.

On the 9th of June, the schooner Providence, lying at Fox Point, Rhode Island, was struck by lightning.

On the same day, a boat belonging to Mr. Harrishoff, lying at Poppasquash, Rhode Island, was struck by lightning, and her mast shivered to pieces.

On the 17th of June, the ship Hero, of Acre, lying about twelve miles below Savannah, was struck by lightning. Her top-gallant-mast was split, and the main-mast slightly injured. Two or three of the crew were stunned.

On the 14th of July, the schooner Napoleon, of Pittston, Bangor, with lumber, was struck by lightning, which shivered fore-mast and fore-top-gallant-mast.

On the 22d of July, the schooner Grape Island, from Boston, for Norfolk, was struck by lightning, by which the fore-mast, main-mast, and main-top-mast, were shivered, the fore-mast completely so, from the hounds to the deck, the decks ripped up, and sustained other damage. From the smoke which issued out of the

hold, the captain entertained no doubt but that she was on fire below, but which was put out by the rain falling at the time. The electric fluid passed out through the hawser hole. The mate was the only person on board who felt the shock.

On the 2d of August, a sloop belonging to Troy, was struck by lightning, near Catskill landing; she had her masts shivered, a splinter from which struck one of the hands, who is not expected to survive.

On the 27th of July, the schooner Pettijohn, was struck by lightning, while going from Plymouth Nag's Head. Both masts were shivered, and the decks were ripped up; and, melancholy to relate, Mr. Lucas, a merchant of Plymouth, was killed; a man and a boy were also much injured, the former so much so that his life was despaired of. There was a large party of ladies on board at the time, none of whom were injured.

On the 2d of August, the brig Cameo was struck by lightning off Cape Cod, had main-top-mast shivered, tore several sails badly, passed through the deck into the hold, and returned back through the deck, tearing up about eight feet of the planking, and bringing with it some wool torn from the bales. The second officer, who was upon the fore-top-gallant-yard at the time, was stunned and fell, his back across a gasket, and his legs upon the cross-tree, in which perilous situation he remained until the people relieved him, when it was found that he was not dangerously hurt.

Bark Herschel, of Bangor, from Baha, was struck by lightning, no date, off Cape Palmas; had main-top-gallant and royal yards splintered, and a bale of tinware in the hold set on fire and injured; the first and second officers, three seamen, the cook and two passengers, were knocked down.

A hand on board a sloop which was struck by lightning in August, near Hudson, was coiling a chain cable near the bow at the time. After the flash, he walked to the stern, and dropped senseless. By immediate application of cold water and camphor, he was resuscitated, and will probably recover.

On the 10th of August, the ship Newark, from New York for Savannah, was struck by lightning, off Frying Pan Shoals, during a heavy squall from the northwest, had main-royal-mast and yard carried away, badly injuring main-top-mast, carrying away main-top-sail yard, and top-sail, passing down to the cabin deck, where it exploded, setting the deck on fire in every direction, and doing considerable damage to the forward part of the cabin; it then passed along the side of the cabin, and entering the water closet, did some damage there, broke twenty-six panes of window-glass from the cabin, and nearly all the crockery in the pantry. Two of the men were seriously injured.

On the 19th of August, the ship Champlain, and schooner H. Westcott, at Philadelphia, were struck by lightning, shattering the main-mast of the former, and both masts of the latter.

On the 2d of September, the schooner American Eagle, from Philadelphia for Savannah, was struck by lightning, and both masts shivered.

1845.

On the 11th of February, bark Ann Louisa, from Vera Cruz, for New York, in latitude 38° 30′, longitude 72° W., at ten o'clock, A. M., was struck by lightning, knocking down nearly all hands, raised the deck around the main-mast, tipped the partirers, and took the top-sail-sheet bits up. One man burnt in the leg, and nearly all hands knocked down six times.

On the 18th of March, the brig Corsair, from New Castle, England, for New York, was struck by lightning, killing two of her crew, and seriously injuring two others.

On the 28th of April, the canal schooner, Mary Piner, lying at Myers' wharf, Norfolk, was struck by lightning. Her main-mast was shivered from the top-mast head, to within about three feet of the deck. No person injured.

On the 29th of May, ship Soldan, at New Orleans, was struck by lightning. It shivered the fore-royal-mast and top-gallant-mast, and, passing down to the deck, ripped up the latter, for a distance of six feet, then passed out into the water, knocking down two men.

On the 3d of July, the lightning struck a boat belonging to Harpswell, Maine, in which were three or four persons returning from fishing. The fluid passed down the mast, killing one of the boys.

On the 9th of July, ship Corsic was twice struck by lightning, off Hatteras, carrying away royal-yard-mast, shattered main-top-gallant-mast, split main-mast, tore in fragments main-royal, affected compass, &c., and started up the coverings of the main-mast.

On the 24th of July, brig Caraccas was struck by lightning, in latitude 34° 35′, longitude 74° 20′, which stunned several men who were aloft, descended in a straight line to the quarter-deck, and passed out of the hawser hole into the sea.

On the same day, bark Rio Grande was struck by lightning in latitude 34° 35′, longitude 71° 38′, and main-top-mast was split.

On the 30th of July, bark Sharon, at Charlestown, Massachusetts, was struck by lightning, had main-mast, main-top-mast, and main-top-gallant-mast, shivered.

On the 3d of August, the bark Casild, from Boston, bound to Pensacola, was struck by lightning, lost her main and mizzen top-masts, and was left in a leaky state.

On the same day, the brig Manhattan was struck by lightning, off St. Marks, Florida; damage trifling.

On the 9th of August, a ship was struck at the dock in Brooklyn, and had one of her top-masts shivered.

On the 10th of August, schooner Atalanta was struck by lightning in the river, coming down from New Orleans.

On the 11th of August, the schooners Virginia and Clinton, lying at the breakwater at Bass river, Massachusetts, were struck by lightning, and damaged.

Thus I have placed before the reader the testimony in favor of lightning rods, and a catalogue of disasters by lightning, showing how necessary it is to seek that protection which has been provided. Three thousand three hundred years ago, the inspired penman declared that "*a way had been made for the lightning of the thunders.*"

E. Meriam.

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## Art. IV.—THE WAREHOUSING SYSTEM.

The object of my last communication was to bring before the public mind the leading features of the warehousing system, and to open out the general principles upon which it is based. Since these remarks were written, I perceive a bill has been brought before Congress by the Committee of the House, on Commerce, intended to embrace, under thirteen sections, a general plan for warehousing imported merchandise. Upon a close investigation, I apprehend that bill will be found both crude and imperfect; and I therefore feel a deeper interest, and a more urgent necessity for pursuing the inquiry, with the hope of reaching results more comprehensive, and better adapted to the general interests of the country, than those suggested in the bill. If I mistake not, the system will be found the most simple, beautiful, and efficient of any that the genius of man has ever devised for the encouragement, extension, and prosperity of commerce—especially suited to a young, fresh, and vigorous republic, just peering above the struggles of infancy, and taking a prominent stand among the commercial nations of the earth.

Where commerce ends, barbarism commences. The line of demarcation is so clearly marked off, that any one may almost determine the degree of civilization attained by any nation, by the scale of its commerce.

Civilized nations cannot exist without commerce. It is commerce that makes them civilized. Remove the cause, and the effect ceases. Under the most rigorous restrictive policy which Bonaparte could establish, fortified by blockades, Berlin and Milan decrees, and an army of mounted custom-house officers, it is a singular fact that France could not resist the pressure of civilization, and she was compelled, in direct contradiction to her vindictive laws, and barbarous rule, to relax her anti-commercial policy, and to admit, direct from England, under license, whole cargoes of articles indispensable to her manufactures; thus affording undeniable evidence to herself and to all the world that civilization and commerce are reciprocal, and that the former follows the latter with the same certainty as the morning sun the shades of night.

France made war upon commerce with a view of injuring the mistress of it; but she forgot that her arms were pointed at the same time against the industry and manufacturing arts of her own country. Paris was failing in beauty and splendor. The seedy coat and soiled dress spoke a language which could not be misunderstood. The ramparts of exclusion gave way before the pressure of gayety and the jeers of wit. Bonaparte, in all his accumulations of unrestrained authority, could not chain down a nation accustomed to all the elegancies of refined society and polite intercourse. The gentlemen would have a new coat, and the ladies a new dress, and all the armies of Europe could not prevent it. He concluded, therefore, to accept a bonus for permission to contravene the laws of the empire. A mighty commercial triumph, and one that shows how difficult a thing it is to uncivilize a nation.

The act of 3d and 4th William IV., C. 57, referred to in my last letter, and known as the act of consolidation, comprises the details, and confers the authority, which controls the bonding system, as it now exists in England.

The power of appointing warehousing ports in the United Kingdom is given to the commissioners of the *treasury;* and the power of designating what warehouses shall be appropriated as bonded warehouses, is given to the commissioners of the *customs;* subject, however, to the direction of the commissioners of the treasury.

After regulating the mode of appointing free ports and bonded warehouses, the law proceeds to ordain the manner of giving bonds to the customs as security to the government for the payment of the duties on merchandise warehoused, when taken out of bond for home consumption, and the rent and charges on goods exported. On these points it may be remarked that there does not appear to be any occasion to follow the example of England in discriminating ports of entry as suitable for the establishment of bonded warehouses, but that every port of entry in the United States should be what is technically called a free port, and that every custom-house should be a bonded warehouse, so that the privileges of the bonding system should be extended equally to every citizen in the Union, and the commerce of the country placed upon a footing independent of local influences, and untrammelled by party dictation.

With regard to the point of giving of bonds to the customs, two modes are legal, and both practised by England. One is the giving of a general bond by the proprietors of the warehouse, with two sufficient sureties, for the payment of the duties when the goods are entered for home consumption, and the charges when entered for exportation. This mode, which is

most generally practised, supersedes the necessity of the importer giving any bonds at all, saves a good deal of trouble, and often prevents delay. The other mode is the execution of a bond by the importer himself, with two securities, for the same object.

But I can see no valid reason for the giving of any bonds. They only serve to embarrass and encumber the regular course of business. The goods, in reference to which bonds are required to be given, are deposited in a government warehouse, under a government lock and key, in care of a government officer, and cannot be withdrawn, until a regular entry is made at the custom-house, for home consumption or exportation; the duties paid in the former case, and the rent and charges in both cases. I do not understand how any better security can be had, and it seems most preposterous that any other should be required. The only object of bonds is to insure the payment of the duties; and there the goods are in the warehouse, in actual possession of the government, pledged for that purpose. But the principle for which I contend seems to be recognized most fully in effect. The proprietor of a bonded warehouse may execute bonds for five hundred importer; in short, for all the goods in their store; and it is accepted, and none required on his part—he assumes all the responsibility, and why? Because he holds, in conjunction with the government, the goods themselves as security, which, by a round-about way, and the occult aid of a little hocus-pocus, comes to precisely the same thing as if the government held the goods as security, without the intervention of the aforesaid warehousemen. Therefore it seems practically demonstrated that no such bonds are necessary. The giving of bonds is necessary only when dutiable goods are *entered* for *exportation;* and the reason for that is sufficiently plain. Personal security, now the goods are withdrawn from the warehouse, is the only one that can be had to guard against the relanding the goods, and thus defrauding the revenue of the duties payable on them when designed for home consumption. Bonds by the owner and shipper, with one security, in double the amount of the value of the goods, are required, that the goods shall be landed at the port of destination. Bonds thus executed are conditional, and subject to be cancelled when a certificate from a consul, official agent, or, in their absence, from a magistrate or merchant, is returned to the custom-house, showing that the goods were landed agreeably to the export entry, lost at sea, by fire, or in any other way satisfactorily accounted for.

Merchandise warehoused, as a general rule, may remain three years in bond, subject to the rent established by law, and must be cleared within that time from the period of entry, either for home consumption or exportation. If not cleared within that time, the goods may be sold at auction by the customs—rent, charges, and duty paid—if sold for home consumption, and the balance of the proceeds paid over to the owner of the goods.

This seems a proper and reasonable measure, and free from any strong objection, so long as the door is open for relief by application to the treasury, in case any remarkable circumstances should occur to prevent the importing merchant from complying with the strict terms of the law, and which would entitle him, in justice and equity, to the favorable consideration of government.

The ninth section of the bill before the government relates, if I correctly remember, not having the bill at the present moment before me, to the re-

sponsibility for losses. Commercial law is founded upon that combined system of reason, justice and equity, the civil law of the Roman empire, and will forever stand a monument of the greatness of a people that could devise and construct a code of laws so rigidly just, so beautifully harmonious, and so perfectly adapted to the wants of all succeeding generations, that no attempt has ever been made to supersede that code by the introduction of anything better. By that law, responsibility falls upon the delinquent, whether that loss arises from neglect or guilt.

If I warehouse the goods of my neighbor at a specific rent, the law presumes that I will take proper care of them. If consumed by a conflagration which I did not occasion, and could not prevent, the loss falls upon the owner of the goods. But if I leave the doors of my warehouse open at night, and the goods are stolen, I must pay for them, because the loss resulted from my neglect. If government officers plunder the warehouse, government should be responsible for the loss, because it is their duty, and theirs only, to see that honest and faithful servants are appointed to fill responsible posts. Indeed, the principles of the civil code of commercial law are so manifestly just, and applicable to reciprocal duties, and obligations between man and man, that in ninety-nine cases out of a hundred it requires only two qualifications to insure a correct judgment; and these are common sense and common honesty.

Seeing the subject, in relation to the warehousing system, is now before the legislature of the country, I do not know that there is any occasion for going into the minute details of the system. I shall therefore waive their consideration, and content myself with having drawn out from the English system some of those parts which are suited to the frame-work of an American warehousing system, and which do not contravene the commercial policy of the United States.

There are peculiar advantages in this country in legislating on this subject, over those of Great Britain. There, the combination of such a variety of local interests necessarily renders a law complex. The exceptions in favor of one colonial possession or another, cover so wide a space, and multiply so rapidly, that it requires more science than falls to the lot of collectors and custom-house officers to unravel the web, and trace out the applicability of its parts. Hence comes consolidation in the work of gathering up the scattered limbs, and constructing one compact act that may embrace the whole system.

In this country, we may begin with consolidations. The whole affair is simple as a log-book. The work of expansion has no room, and we may gather the particulars of a mighty system for the whole nation under one enactment. J. S.

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## Art. V.—THE NORTHWEST FUR TRADE.

We are indebted to Elliot C. Cowdin, Esq., the president of the Mercantile Library Association of Boston, for the somewhat extended sketch of the Hon. William Sturgis's valuable lecture upon the "Northwest Fur Trade," delivered before that association, on Wednesday evening, January 21st, 1846. The report was prepared by Mr. Cowdin, with much care, from the original manuscript, and can, therefore, be relied upon for its entire accuracy. Mr. Sturgis, the author of the lecture,

is well known as one of the most eminent merchants of Boston; and his reputation in that city, for practical intelligence and sterling good sense, stands very high.

In commencing, the lecturer observed that, at this present moment, when the public attention is anxiously directed to the partition, or other disposition, of a large portion of the northwestern part of our continent, as a question seriously affecting both our domestic and foreign relations, anything respecting that country, or its native population, assumes a more than ordinary interest.

Mr. Sturgis said that, in early life, he made several successful voyages, to what was then deemed a remote and unexplored region, and passed a number of years among a people, at that time, just becoming known to the civilized world. His first visit to Nootka Sound was made in the last century, about twenty years after it was discovered by Captain Cook.

Though not one of the first, he was amongst those who early engaged in the *Northwest trade*, so called, and continued to carry it on, either personally or otherwise, until it ceased to be valuable. He thus witnessed its growth, maximum, decrease, and, finally, its abandonment by Americans. These early visits afforded him an opportunity, too, of observing changes in the habits and manners of the Indians, effected by intercourse with a more civilized race; and, he regretted to add, brought to his knowledge the injustice, violence, and bloodshed, which has marked the progress of this intercourse.

Mr. Sturgis did not expect others would feel the same interest in the reminiscences that he felt, but he thought they might engage the attention of his hearers, and perhaps awaken a sympathy for the remnant of a race fast disappearing from the earth—victims of injustice, cruelty, and oppression—and of a policy that seems to recognize *power* as the sole standard of *right*.

The hour, this evening, the lecturer proposed to devote principally to *the fur trade*, and some matters connected with it; and, in the next lecture, he should speak of the habits, peculiarities, language, and some features in the general character of the Indians. But that branch of the subject most deeply interesting to them, occurrences upon the coast within his own knowledge, of treatment which the Indians had received from the white men, must be postponed to some future occasion.

The Northwest trade, as far as we are concerned, has ceased to be of importance in a commercial view; but a branch of commerce, (said Mr. Sturgis,) in which a number of American vessels, and many seamen and others were constantly and profitably employed, for more than forty years—which brought wealth to those engaged in it, and was probably as beneficial to the country as any commercial use of an equal amount of capital has ever been—cannot be without interest as matter of unwritten history, and may, perhaps, illustrate some principles of commerce deserving our notice and consideration.

This trade, in which our citizens largely participated, and at one period nearly monopolized, was principally limited to the sea-coast between the mouth of the Columbia river, in latitude 46°, and Cook's Inlet, in latitude 60°, to the numerous islands bordering this whole extent of coast, and the sounds, bays, and inlets, within these limits. Trade was always carried on along-side, or on board the ship, usually anchored near the shore, the Indians coming off in their canoes. It was seldom safe to admit many of the natives into the ship at the same time, and a departure from this prudent course, has, in numerous instances, been followed by the most disastrous and tragical results.

The vessels usually employed were from one hundred to two hundred and fifty tons burthen, each. The time occupied for a voyage by vessels that remained upon the coast only a single season, was from twenty-two months to two years, but they generally remained out two seasons, and were absent from home nearly three years. The principal object of the voyages was to procure the skins of the sea-otter, which were obtained from the natives by barter, carried to Canton, and there exchanged for the productions of the Celestial Empire, to be brought home or taken to Europe, thus completing what may be called *a trading voyage*.

Beaver and common otter skins, and other small furs, were occasionally procured in considerable quantities, but in the early period of the trade, they were deemed unimportant, and little attention was given to collecting them. The sea-otter skins have ever been held in high estimation by the Chinese and Russians, as an ornamental fur; but its great scarcity and consequent cost, limits the wear to the wealthy and higher classes only. A full grown prime skin, which has been stretched before drying, is about five feet long, and twenty-four to thirty inches wide, covered with very fine fur, about three-fourths of an inch in length, having a rich jet black, glossy surface, and exhibiting a silver color when blown open. Those are esteemed the finest skins which have some white hairs interspersed and scattered over the whole surface, and a perfectly white head. Mr. Sturgis said that it would now give him more pleasure to look at a splendid sea-otter skin, than to examine half the pictures that are stuck up for exhibition, and puffed up by pretended connoisseurs. In fact, excepting a beautiful woman and a lovely infant, he regarded them as among the most attractive natural objects that can be placed before him.

The sea-otter has been found only in the North Pacific. The earliest efforts on record to collect furs in that region, were made by Russians from Kamschatka, who, in the early part of the last century, visited, for this purpose, the Kurile and other islands that lie near the northern coasts of Asia. After the expedition of Behring & Co., in 1741, these excursions were slowly extended to other groups between the two continents, and when Cook, in 1778, explored these northern regions, he met with Russian adventurers upon several of the islands in proximity with the American shore. It was, however, the publication of Cook's northern voyages in 1785, that gave the great impulse to the Northwest fur trade, and drew adventurers from several nations to that quarter.

The published journal of Captain King, who succeeded to the command of one of the ships after the death of Captains Cook and Clark, and his remarks, setting forth the favorable prospects for this trade, doubtless roused the spirit of adventure. Between the time of the publication referred to, in 1785, and the close of 1787, expeditions were fitted out from Canton, Macao, Calcutta and Bombay, in the East, London and Ostend in Europe, and from Boston in the United States. In 1787, the first American expedition was fitted out, and sailed from Boston. It consisted of the ship Columbia, of two hundred and twenty, and the sloop Washington, of ninety tons burthen—the former commanded by John Kenrick, the latter by Robert Gray.

Mr. Sturgis deemed it scarcely possible, in the present age, when the departure or return of ships engaged in distant voyages is an every-day occurrence, to appreciate the magnitude of this undertaking, or the obstacles and difficulties that had to be surmounted in carrying it out.

He said, were he required to select any particular event in the commercial history of our country, to establish our reputation for bold enterprise and persevering energy, in commercial pursuits, he should point to this expedition of the Columbia and Washington. Many of the obstacles and dangers were clearly pointed out, showing that it was then viewed as an extraordinary undertaking. A medal was struck upon the occasion, and some impressions taken out in the vessels for distribution. The lecturer briefly described it, and exhibited to the audience a fac simile of one preserved in the Department of State at Washington. On one side of this medal was engraved "Columbia and Washington: commanded by J. Kenrick," with a representation of the two vessels; on the reverse was the following inscription: "Fitted at Boston, N. America, for the Pacific Ocean, by J. Burrell, C. Brown, C. Bulfinch, J. Darby, C. Hatch, J. M. Pintard, 1787."

Captain Kenrick, who was entrusted with the command of the expedition, was a bold, energetic, experienced seaman. His management justified the confidence reposed in him, but he was fated never to return.

The project of engaging in the fur trade of the North Pacific, from this country, was first brought forward by the celebrated American traveller, Ledyard. In his erratic wanderings, he entered on board the ship Resolution, as corporal of marines, with Captain Cook, upon his last voyage. After his return, he made repeated attempts to get an outfit for a voyage to the Northwest Coast. In 1784,

three years previous to Kenrick's expedition, he induced Robert Morris to engage in the undertaking. But for some cause, now unknown, the enterprise was abandoned, as were similar ones in France and England. The unfortunate Ledyard seemed doomed to disappointment in whatever he undertook. The life of this remarkable man shows that respectable talents, united with great energy and perseverance of character, may be comparatively valueless to the possessor, and useless to the world, from the want of a well-balanced mind, which, unfortunately, was the fatal deficiency in Ledyard.

Nearly all the early and distinguished navigators, who discovered and explored the northern regions of the Pacific, met the fate that too often awaits the pioneers in bold and hazardous undertakings, and found a premature death, by violence or disaster, or disease brought on by incessant toil and exposure.

Behring, a Danish navigator in the service of Russia, who commanded the expedition just mentioned, was wrecked in 1741, upon an island that bears his name, and perished miserably in the course of the winter. He was the first navigator known to have passed through the strait that separates Asia from America; and Cook, who was the next to sail through it, in a commendable spirit of justice, gave to this strait the name of the unfortunate Behring. The fate of Cook is well known. He was killed by the natives of the Sandwich Islands, of which group he was the discoverer.

Mr. Sturgis said he had stood upon the spot where Cook fell, in Karakakooa Bay, and conversed with the natives who were present at the time of the massacre. They uniformly expressed regret and sorrow for his death, but insisted that it was caused by his own imprudence.

The lecturer next gave an interesting account of the loss of two French vessels fitted out in 1785, on a voyage of discovery and exploration, which, after visiting the northwest coast of America, departed from Sydney, in New South Wales, early in 1788, and nothing more was heard from them until 1826, when a wreck and some articles were found at the island of Malicolo, in the South Pacific, that left no doubt but the unfortunate Frenchmen perished there.

Vancouver, an able British navigator, was sent out by his government in 1790, to receive Nootka Sound from the Spaniards, and explore the whole western coast of North America. The chart prepared by him is the most accurate of any at the present day. With a constitution shattered by devotion to his arduous duties, he returned to England in 1794, and sunk into an early grave.

Mr. Sturgis said he had already remarked that Kenrick was fated never to return. After remaining with both vessels two seasons on the northwest coast, he sent the Columbia home, in charge of Captain Gray, and remained himself in the sloop Washington. He continued in her several years, trading on the coast and at the Sandwich Islands.

In 1792, while lying in the harbor of Honolulu, at one of these islands, and receiving, upon his birthday, a complimentary salute from the captain of an English trading vessel anchored near, he was instantly killed by a shot carelessly left in one of the guns fired on the occasion.

Captain Gray reached home in the Columbia, in the summer of 1790, and thus completed the first circumnavigation of the globe under the American flag. He was immediately fitted out for a second voyage in the same ship, and it was during this voyage that he discovered, entered, and gave the name to the Columbia river, a circumstance now relied upon as one of the strongest grounds to maintain our claim to the Oregon Territory. He died abroad some years ago.

Mr. Sturgis here observed that it would bring some of the events of which he had spoken quite near our own time, to mention that in the street in which we are, (Federal-street,) the name of "Gray" may be seen upon the door of a house nearly opposite Milton Place, which house is now occupied by the widow and daughters of Captain Gray, the discoverer of the Columbia river, and the first circumnavigator who bore the flag of our country in triumph round the world.

The voyage of the Columbia was not profitable to her owners, in a pecuniary view, but it opened the way for other adventures, which were commenced on her return. In 1791, there were seven vessels from the United States in the North Pacific, in pursuit of furs. For various reasons, the American traders so far gain-

ed the ascendancy, that at the close of the last century, with the exception of the Russian establishments on the northern part of the coast, the whole trade was in our hands, and so remained until the close of the war with Great Britain, in 1815. This trade was confined almost exclusively to Boston. It was attempted, unsuccessfully, from Philadelphia and New York, and from Providence and Bristol, in Rhode Island. Even the intelligent and enterprising merchants of Salem, failed of success; some of them, however, were interested in several of the most successful northwestern voyages carried on from Boston. So many of the vessels engaged in this trade belonged here, the Indians had the impression that Boston was our whole country. Had any one spoken to them of *American* ships, or *American* people, he would not have been understood. We were only known as *Boston* ships, and *Boston* people.

In 1801, the trade was most extensively, though not most profitably prosecuted; that year, there were 15 vessels on the coast, and in 1802 more than 15,000 sea-otter skins were collected, and carried to Canton. But the competition was so great, that few of the voyages were then profitable, and some were ruinous. Subsequently, the war with Great Britain interrupted the trade for a time; but after the peace in 1815, it was resumed, and flourished for some years. The difficulties and uncertainty in procuring furs became so serious, that in 1829 the business north of California was abandoned.

Besides the 15,000 skins collected by American traders in 1802, probably the Russians obtained 10,000 the same year within their hunting limits, making an aggregate of 25,000 in one season. Mr. Sturgis said he had personally collected 6000 in a single voyage, and he once purchased 560 of prime quality in half a day. At the present time, the whole amount collected annually within the same limits does not exceed 200, and those of very ordinary quality.

The commercial value of the sea-otter skin, like other commodities, has varied with the changes in the relation of supply and demand.

The narrative of Cook's voyage shows the value of a prime skin to have been, at the time of that voyage, $120. In 1802, when the largest collection was made, the average price of large and small skins, at Canton, was only about $20 each. At the present time, those of first quality would sell readily at $150. Some seventy or eighty ordinary California skins, brought home a few months ago, were sold here at nearly $60 each, to send to the north of Europe.

Mr. Sturgis said the trade on the coast was altogether a barter trade. It consisted in part of blankets, coarse cloths, great-coats, fire-arms and ammunition, rice, molasses, and biscuit, coarse cottons, cutlery, and hard-ware, a great variety of trinkets, &c.; in fact, everything that one can imagine. Copper has long been known, and highly prized by the Indians. The lecturer observed that he had seen pieces of virgin copper among different tribes, that weighed 50 or 60 pounds each. It was put to no use, but still was considered very valuable, and a person having a few pieces was deemed a wealthy man.

The natives had no currency. But the skin of the ermine, found in limited numbers upon the northern part of the continent, was held in such universal estimation, and of such uniform value, among many tribes, that it in a measure supplied the place of currency. The skin of this little slender animal is from eight to twelve inches in length, perfectly white, except the tip of the tail, which is jet black.

Urged by some Indian friends, in 1802, Mr. Sturgis obtained and sent home a fine specimen, with a request that a quantity should be ordered at the annual Leipsic fair, where he supposed they might be obtained. About 5,000 were procured, which he took out with him on the next voyage, and arrived at Kigarnee, one of the principal trading places on the coast, early in 1804. Having previously encouraged the Indians to expect them, the first question was, if he had "clicks," (the Indian name for the ermine skin) for sale, and being answered in the affirmative, great earnestness was manifested to obtain them, and it was on that occasion that he purchased 560 prime sea-otter skins, at that time worth $50 apiece at Canton, in a single forenoon, giving for each five ermine skins, that cost less than thirty cents each in Boston. He succeeded in disposing of all his ermines

at the same rate, before others carried them out—but in less than two years from that time, one hundred of them would not bring a sea-otter skin.

Among a portion of the Indians, the management of trade is entrusted to the women. The reason given by the men was, that women could talk with the white men *better* than they could, and were willing to talk *more*.

When the natives had a number of skins for sale, it was usual to fix a price for those of the first quality as a standard, which required a great deal of haggling. In addition to the staple articles of blankets, or cloth, or muskets, &c., that constituted this price, several smaller articles were given as presents, nominally, but in reality formed part of the price. Of these small articles, different individuals would require a different assortment: a system of equivalents was accordingly established. For instance, an iron pot and an axe were held to be of equal value —so of a knife and a file, a pocket looking-glass and a pair of scissors.

Mr. Sturgis next alluded to the various efforts made by the Indians to obtain a more valuable article than the established equivalent. To avoid trouble, which would certainly follow if he yielded in a single instance, he said he had found it necessary to waste hours in a contest with a woman about articles of no greater value than a skein of thread or a sewing-needle. From various causes, the northwest trade was liable to great fluctuations. The laws of supply and demand were frequently disregarded, and prices consequently often unsettled. He had seen prime sea-otter skins obtained for articles that did not cost fifty cents at home, and had seen given for them articles that cost here nearly twice as much as the skins would sell for in China.

To secure success with any branch of business, it must be undertaken with intelligence, and steadily prosecuted. Men of sanguine temperaments are often led by reports of great profits made by others, to engage in a business of which they are ignorant, or have not adequate means to carry it on, and thus involve themselves in loss or ruin. These truths Mr. Sturgis deemed strikingly illustrated by the northwest trade.

While most of those who have rushed into this trade without knowledge, experience, or sufficient capital to carry it on, have been subjected to such serious losses, they were compelled to abandon it; to all who pursued it systematically and perseveringly, for a series of years, it proved highly lucrative. Among those who were the most successful in this trade, were the late firm of J. & T. H. Perkins, J. & Thos. Lamb, Edward Dorr & Sons, Boardman & Pope, Geo. W. Lyman, Wm. H. Boardman, the late Theodore Lyman, and several others, each of whom acquired a very ample fortune.

These fortunes were not acquired, as individual wealth not unfrequently is, at the expense of our own community, by a tax upon the whole body of consumers, in the form of enhanced prices, often from adventitious causes. They were obtained abroad by giving to the Indians articles which they valued more than their furs, and then selling those furs to the Chinese for such prices as they are willing to pay; thus adding to the wealth of the country, at the expense of foreigners, all that was acquired by individuals beyond the usual return for the use of capital, and suitable compensation for the services of those employed. This excess was sometimes very large. Mr. Sturgis said that more than once he had known a capital of $40,000, employed in a northwest voyage, yield a return exceeding $150,000. In one instance, an outfit not exceeding $50,000, gave a gross return of $284,000. The individual who conducted the voyage is now a prominent merchant of Boston.

In conclusion, the lecturer gave a brief account of the two great fur companies. In 1785 an association of merchants was formed in Siberia for the purpose of collecting furs in the North Pacific. In 1799 they were chartered under the name of the "Russian American Company," with the exclusive privilege of procuring furs within the Russian limits, (54° 40′) for a period of twenty years, which has since been extended.

The furs collected are sent across Siberia to Kiatska, the great mart for peltries in the northern part of China, or to St. Petersburg. For a number of years the company obtained a large portion of their supplies from American vessels, giving in return seal-skins and other furs, and latterly, bills on St. Petersburg.

The treatment of the agents and servants of the company, to the Indians, has been of the most atrocious and revolting character.

The British Hudson Bay Company was chartered by Charles II., in 1669, with the grant of the exclusive use and control of a very extensive though not well-defined country, north and west of Canada. This uncertainty as to limits, led to the formation of an association of merchants in Canada in 1787, called the "Northwest Company," for carrying on the fur trade without the supposed boundaries of the Hudson Bay Company.

Those in the service of these concerns soon came in collision. Disputes and personal violence followed. At length, in June, 1816, a pitched battle was fought near a settlement that had been made by Lord Selkirk, upon the Red river, under a grant from the Hudson Bay Company, between the settlers and a party in the service of the Northwest Company, in which Governor Semple and seventeen of his men were killed. This roused the attention of the British government, and in 1821, the two companies were united, or rather, the Northwest Company was merged into the Hudson Bay Company. Previous to this, however, the Northwest Company had, in 1806, established trading posts beyond the Rocky Mountains. During the last war with Great Britain, they got possession of Mr. Astor's settlement at the mouth of the Columbia, and extended their posts on several branches of that river. These establishments being united, it infused new life, and their operations have since been conducted with increased vigor. They have now, practically, a monopoly of the fur trade, from 42° to 54° 40', on the western sea-board, and from 49° to the Northern Ocean, upon the rest of the American continent.

With the exception of the British East India Company, the Hudson Bay Company is the most extensive and powerful association of individuals for private emolument, now in existence, and their influence has hitherto prevented an adjustment of the Oregon question. Mr. Sturgis said he did not speak from mere conjecture, when he affirmed that it would have been settled months ago, upon the line suggested by him in a previous lecture before this association, and to the satisfaction of the people of both countries, but for the selfish interference of this company. Should disastrous consequences follow the delay in settling this question, it will add another to the numerous evils that have already resulted from great commercial monopolies.

The whole business of collecting furs upon our western continent, without the acknowledged limits of the United States, is now monopolized by two great corporations, the Russian and British Fur Companies.

After the peace in 1815, the British Northwest Company—partly in consequence of the monopoly of the East India Company—were compelled to seek the aid of American merchants and American vessels, in carrying on an important branch of their business. For a number of years, all the supplies for British establishments, west of the Rocky Mountains, were brought from London to Boston, and carried hence to the mouth of the Columbia in American ships, and all their collections of furs sent to Canton, consigned to an American house, and the proceeds shipped to England or the United States, in the same vessels; a fact which speaks loudly in favor of the freedom of our institutions and the enterprise of our merchants. Our respected fellow citizens, Messrs. Perkins & Co., furnished the ships, and transacted the business.

We may state, on the authority of Mr. Cowdin, that the lecture was listened to with unbroken attention and merited approbation, by a numerous and highly intelligent audience. Very many of the most prominent merchants and distinguished citizens of Boston were in attendance, among whom was the venerable Thomas H. Perkins. As a matter of "unwritten history," the lecture is indeed very valuable—inasmuch as it imparts a knowledge of the commercial enterprises of by-gone days, interesting in a high degree, and not accessible in any other form. In fact, it was just what a lecture should be—the result of large experience and practical wisdom, set forth in a clear, methodical, and comprehensive manner.

It is to be regretted that more of our prominent merchants are not brought forward in this capacity, for it is from them that the younger branches of the mercantile community derive their best lessons of the duties and responsibilities of commercial life.

## Art. VI.—COAL REGION OF THE SCHUYLKILL AND WYOMING VALLEY.

The tract of country extending from the city of Philadelphia along the banks of the Schuylkill to the Wyoming valley, embraces, probably, the most interesting part of the coal region of the Union. Constituting a section of the country distinguished for the coal and iron which lie imbedded in its hills, as well as for the enterprise that is peculiarly active in excavating them from the earth, the beauty of its scenery is no less remarkable than its mineral resources. It comprises, in fact, a principal gate, through which is transported the vast body of anthracite coal that supplies the population of the sea board; and, running through a country sufficiently fertile to afford the persons employed in the coal trade the means of subsistence, it is marked by many peculiar circumstances.

As we proceed from Philadelphia by the shore of the Schuylkill, through the Reading railway, we are conscious of entering upon an important section of the country. The spacious and elegant bridges which are thrown across the streams, the number of men who are employed in the public works, and the long trains of cars—sometimes numbering a hundred—which are drawn by a single engine, and that are continually running to and from the mines, evince the species of labor which is acting upon this part of the state. Proceeding about eight miles, we reach the thriving village of Manayunk, containing cotton and paper mills and other manufacturing establishments; Phenixville, which is distinguished for its iron-works; Norristown and Reading, two places containing a considerable population and trade, and arrive at the settlement of Mauch-Chunk, a prominent depot of the coal trade. The scenery along this track is varied and interesting, presenting, as it does, a succession of farms well cultivated by an industrious population. Although it was but the tenth of April, we noticed along the track of the railway, clusters of purple flowers springing from the cinnamon-colored rocks which are peculiar to this part of Pennsylvania.

Reaching Mauch-Chunk, in the county of Carbon, we arrive at one of the principal anthracite coal districts in this section of the country. Situated upon the west bank of the Lehigh, and surrounded by steep mountains, this little settlement exhibits in its mines of coal, its inclined planes, and in the extensive machinery which is employed in the running and transportation of that product, the leading features that mark this branch of enterprise. The southern anthracite coal-field, extending eastward from Schuylkill county, terminates in this region, while the mountains forming the edges of the coal basins upon each side are about five hundred feet above the adjacent valleys. Numerous beds of coal have been discovered in the vicinity of this place, and are worked with great success—while from one of the mines, the trains of laden cars are conveyed upon a descending railroad five miles in length, to the landing at Mauch-Chunk, where the boats are waiting to receive it. In one of the mines the coal-bed is from fifty to sixty feet thick, and lies upon the summit—being worked from the sur-

face, and by daylight. Already between one and two millions of tons of coal have been mined at this bed. From the mine to the river a railroad extends for the distance of nine miles, upon which laden trains descend, and when their burden is deposited, are themselves drawn back by mules which pass down with the trains in large cars constructed for the purpose. It is by the enterprise of the Lehigh Coal and Navigation Company, that a river not naturally favorable to navigation, has been converted into a valuable channel of canal and slack-water transportaton, and the mineral resources of the hills around this region have been thus developed, and their products brought into market.

We now reach Pottsville, an active village, which constitutes the centre of the coal trade of this quarter. It is the grand depot of the coal that is mined in the immediate vicinity of the town, as well as the place of shipment for that which is transported to this point by the numerous branching railroads leading to this place from the mines of the surrounding hills. Numerous small villages are scattered through the region, which are inhabited in a greater part by miners, and which are sustained by the coal trade. The population of this section of the mining district has in fact been much increased since the opening of the mines—not only by immigrants from the neighboring counties, but by settlers from England and Ireland, as well as Scotland and Wales. Pine Grove, on the Swatara, at the head of the navigation of the Union Canal Company, is moreover a place of considerable importance, inasmuch as a large quantity of coal is shipped at that place from the Swatara region.

We are informed that more than six hundred thousand tons of anthracite coal are transported from this part of our country each year, and that twenty thousand tons more are consumed within the county, notwithstanding that it is only since the year 1825 that mining was here commenced for shipment. It is also estimated that a population of sixteen thousand is scattered through the coal region, and that fifteen hundred persons are employed in the transportation of coal upon the railroads and canals, who do not reside within the county, so that the entire population here depending upon the coal trade, amounts to about seventeen thousand five hundred. There are also here about seventeen hundred miners; two thousand mules employed in and about the mines, and in propelling the boats which are required in the transportation of coal, besides fifteen hundred drift cars, two thousand railroad cars, and eight hundred and fifty boats are also engaged in transporting the coal to the landings and to the market. There is, moreover, a difference in the mode of working the several mines, some being situated above water-level, and requiring no engines; while others being below, require steam engines for the purpose of pumping out the water, and in raising the coal. More than four millions of dollars are here invested in works connected with the coal trade; there are more than a hundred miles of railroad constructed by companies, and by individuals, besides a total amount of forty miles extending under ground from the mines to the open light of day. Beds of iron ore have likewise been discovered in this vicinity, which are worked with a good degree of success. In order to show the character of the coal trade from this region, we subjoin a table exhibiting the amount of the coal received in Philadelphia from the mines during a single week in the month of April of the present year, upon the Reading railway:

The amount of anthracite coal transported on the Reading railway, during the week ending the 16th inst., inclusive, was as follows, viz:

| From | Tons. | Cwt. |
|---|---|---|
| Pottsville,..... | 4,432 | 12 |
| Schuylkill Haven,..... | 9,463 | 19 |
| Port Carbon,..... | 6,102 | 16 |
| Port Clinton,..... | 1,475 | 10 |
| Total,..... | 21,474 | 17 |
| Previously this year,..... | 186,948 | 11 |
| Grand total,..... | 208,423 | 08 |

The shipments from the Lehigh mines, for the week ending on Saturday last, were as follows:

| From | Tons. |
|---|---|
| The Lehigh company's mines..... | 918 |
| Rhume Run,..... | 1,364 |
| Beaver Meadow,..... | 768 |
| Hazleton,..... | 349 |
| Buck Mountain,..... | 117 |
| Total,..... | 3,516 |

In advancing from Hazleton to the valley of Wyoming, the face of the country becomes more mountainous; and in its dense forests, and deep pools, amid the shadows of the hills, filled with standing trees, it exhibits the aspect of frontier life. Log-houses, those distinguishing marks of a new country, are scattered along the track of the road; and with the aspect of a German population who are moral and industrious, you can scarcely evade the impression that you are passing through a section of the west.

As we advance nearer to the valley of the Wyoming, the face of the scenery becomes more rugged; extensive tracts of pine, which furnish lumber to a considerable amount, skirt the roads—and blue mountains, like distant clouds, begin to swell upon the horizon. Sometimes in descending the summit of a mountain, a broad valley spreads out before the eye its enclosed farms, which seemed, from the mingled contrast of the emerald and brown of early spring, like a piece of mosaic, in the midst of which, the white farm-house appeared like specks of snow. Crossing occasional railroad tracks leading from the mines, and ascending and descending hills, we now reach a rocky hill, which seems like a mighty fortress, from which clouds of blue landscape appear to bound the sight; and descending this mountain over rough fragments of the rock, composing the road, we enter Wilkesbarre, in the valley of Wyoming.

The beauty of this valley has been reflected across the Atlantic, and poetry has painted it in glowing colors, which we deem hardly exaggerated. It here presents the aspect of an insulated plain, bordered on each side by mountains, and watered by the Susquehanna, which flows through the centre, exhibiting less of the sublime than the beautiful. The light blue sky which always characterizes mountain scenery, depending upon the purity of the atmosphere, the mountains themselves, with the shadows

ever moving over their summits, the winding current of the river, and the settlements of the valley, which, from the lofty and distant hills, seem like the block cities of the nursery—exhibit an effect which cannot easily be described. As the sun descended it did not gild the mountains, but sank below the horizon like an orb of fire, leaving in its track masses of rosy clouds, which gradually melted into hues of amber—and those in turn faded away into a lighter colored atmosphere. The sun had scarcely resigned his dominion and left the world in darkness, when lines of light began to appear in the east, and through a pyramid of pearly clouds up rose the moon into a serene sky, like a globe of living silver. Whether it was the purity of the air, the serenity of the scene, or other causes which produced the effect, we know not, but it was a scene (we say it with reverence,) almost of celestial beauty. The landscape in the neighboring region is decorated with several lakes and cascades, and the mountain streams abound in trout, and the forests in deer, and other game, for those who have leisure for such amusements.

In the vicinity of Wilkesbarre, are several coal mines; one belonging to a Baltimore company, which has been worked with success. An opportunity was soon presented by which we were enabled to visit one of those mines. Entering the mouth of a mine, like a tomb, or rather a tunnel, with a guide who holds a lantern, you advance along a railroad track through an arched passage which at some points was lined with timber. Proceeding a short distance, we noticed through the crevices of the boards which at this place bordered the sides, a light; and looking through them, we perceived a number of miners with lights fastened upon their caps, working in what is denominated a chamber. Advancing to the distance of an eighth of a mile, we came to the end of the passage, where we found other miners with lights also in their caps, who were employed in blasting rocks of coal which were imbedded in the mines. Scarcely had we reached this point, when a mule peered through the darkness along the track of the railroad, drawing a car, his way being enlightened by a lamp that was fastened between his ears. Thus it is that the millions of tons of coal transported from this quarter are excavated from the mines. Railroads extend from the principal mines to the canal; the products of the coal districts of the Wyoming and Lackawanna valleys being exported to Rondout, situated upon the Hudson river.

We have presented a brief sketch of this coal region of Pennsylvania, because it constitutes a most interesting portion of the coal district, and because the coal trade has already grown to vast importance. This product, it is well known, has attained to extensive use throughout the Union. It is employed more or less for domestic purposes, from the banks of the Penobscot to the city of Charleston, and from the shores of the Lakes to the mouth of the Mississippi, embracing not only the large cities upon the seaboard, but the innumerable intermediate villages of greater or less size. It is moreover beginning to be extensively employed in steam navigation and in foundries, and for the smelting and working of iron. The two prominent staples, coal and iron, in which this section of Pennsylvania abounds, are the most valuable mineral products, in their bearing upon national wealth; and the circumstances connected with the coal trade must be interesting to those who desire to become acquainted with the practical operations of this branch of enterprise.

## Art. VII.—TRADE AND TONNAGE OF THE NEW YORK CANALS.

THE following tables are compiled from the annual report of the commissioners of the canal fund, on the trade and tonnage of the New York canals.—(Senate Document, No. 59, for 1846.)

These tables plainly show that there is an increase in the annual number of lockages on the Erie Canal; a rapid increase in the tonnage of products of the forest, and in the total tonnage of the canals.

TABLE I.

SHOWING LOCKAGES, &C., ON THE ERIE CANAL.

| Year. | Number of lockages at Alexander's lock, 3 miles west of Schenectady. | Average for each period of 5 years. | Number of boats arrived at, and cleared from, Albany and Troy. | Average for each period of 5 years. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1824,..... | 6,166 | | 8,760 | |
| 1825,..... | 10,985 | | 13,110 | |
| 1826,..... | 15,156 | | | |
| 1827,..... | 13,004 | | | |
| 1828,..... | 14,579 | 14,006 | 23,662 | 22,000* |
| 1829,..... | 12,619 | | 21,490 | |
| 1830,..... | 14,674 | | 23,874 | |
| 1831,..... | 16,284 | | 26,882 | |
| 1832,..... | 18,601 | | 25,826 | |
| 1833,..... | 20,649 | 20,849 | 31,460 | 30,659 |
| 1834,..... | 22,911 | | 32,438 | |
| 1835,..... | 25,798 | | 36,690 | |
| 1836,..... | 25,516 | | 34,190 | |
| 1837,..... | 21,055 | | 31,082 | |
| 1838,..... | 25,962 | 24,751 | 32,120 | 31,946 |
| 1839,..... | 24,234 | | 31,882 | |
| 1840,..... | 26,987 | | 30,456 | |
| 1841,..... | 30,320 | | 33,782 | |
| 1842,..... | 22,869 | | 32,840 | |
| 1843,..... | 23,184 | 27,009 | 32,826 | 35,665 |
| 1844,..... | 28,219 | | 38,786 | |
| 1845,..... | 30,452 | | 40,094 | |

From an inspection of the above table, it is evident that the number of lockages is increasing, although the capacity of the boats now is double what it was in 1838.

TABLE II.

SHOWING, IN TONS, THE TOTAL MOVEMENT OF ARTICLES ON ALL THE CANALS, FROM 1836 to 1845.

| Year. | Products of the forest. | Agriculture. | All other articles. | Total. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1836,..... | 755,252 | 225,747 | 329,808 | 1,310,807 |
| 1837,..... | 618,741 | 208,043 | 344,512 | 1,171,296 |
| 1838,..... | 665,089 | 255,227 | 412,695 | 1,333,011 |
| 1839,..... | 667,581 | 266,052 | 502,080 | 1,435,713 |
| 1840,..... | 587,647 | 393,780 | 434,619 | 1,416,046 |
| 1841,..... | 645,548 | 391,905 | 484,208 | 1,521,661 |
| 1842,..... | 504,597 | 401,276 | 331,058 | 1,236,932 |
| 1843,..... | 687,184 | 455,797 | 370,458 | 1,513,439 |
| 1844,..... | 864,373 | 509,387 | 442,826 | 1,816,586 |
| 1845,..... | 881,774 | 555,160 | 540,631 | 1,977,565 |
| Total 1st five years, from 1836 to 1840, inclusive,..... | 3,394,310 | 1,348,848 | 2,023,714 | 6,666,873 |
| Total 2d five years, from 1841 to 1845, inclusive,..... | 3,583,476 | 2,313,525 | 2,169,181 | 8,066,182 |

* Estimated, as there are two years uncertain, viz: 1826 and 1827.

TABLE II.—Continued.

| | Prod. of forest. | Agriculture. | All oth. artic. | Total. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Av. p. ann. from 1836 to 1840, inc.. | 658,862 | 269,770 | 404,743 | 1,333,374 |
| Av. p. ann. from 1841 to 1845, inc.. | 716,695 | 462,705 | 433,836 | 1,613,236 |
| Increase in five years,..... | 57,833 | 192,935 | 29,093 | 279,862 |
| Increase per annum,..... | 11,566 | 38,587 | 5,819 | 55,972 |

From the above, it is evident that the tonnage of the canals is rapidly increasing at an average rate of about 56,000 tons per annum. It is also evident that the tonnage of products of the forest is increasing at an average rate of over 11,000 tons per annum.

TABLE III.

SHOWING THE TONNAGE ARRIVING AT TIDE WATER.

| Year. | Products of the forest. | Agriculture. | All other articles. | Total. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1836,..... | 473,668 | 173,000 | 49,679 | 696,347 |
| 1837,..... | 385,017 | 151,469 | 75,295 | 611,781 |
| 1838,..... | 400,877 | 182,142 | 57,462 | 640,481 |
| 1839,..... | 377,720 | 163,785 | 60,623 | 602,128 |
| 1840,..... | 321,709 | 302,356 | 44,947 | 669,012 |
| 1841,..... | 449,095 | 270,240 | 54,999 | 774,334 |
| 1842,..... | 321,480 | 293,177 | 51,969 | 626,727 |
| 1843,..... | 416,173 | 346,140 | 74,548 | 836,861 |
| 1844,..... | 545,202 | 383,363 | 102,830 | 1,031,395 |
| 1845,..... | 607,930 | 447,627 | 149,386 | 1,204,943 |
| Total, 1st five years, from 1836 to 1840, inclusive,..... | 1,958,991 | 972,752 | 288,066 | 3,219,749 |
| Total 2d five years, from 1841 to 1845, inclusive,..... | 2,339,880 | 740,547 | 433,732 | 4,514,159 |
| Average per annum, 1st five years, from 1836 to 1840, inclusive,..... | 391,798 | 194,550 | 57,601 | 643,949 |
| Average per annum, 2d five years, from 1840 to 1846,..... | 467,976 | 348,109 | 86,746 | 902,831 |
| Increase in five years,..... | 76,178 | 153,559 | 29,145 | 258,882 |
| Annual increase,..... | 15,235 | 30,712 | 5,829 | 51,776 |

From the above, it is evident that the total tonnage arriving at tide water, is rapidly increasing, at an average rate of about 52,000 tons per annum. It is also evident that the tonnage from products of the forest, arriving at tide water, are increasing at the rate of about 15,000 tons per annum.

Owing to the deposit of sediment from the small streams running into the canal, and various other causes, the capacity of the canal was so much reduced, that, in 1838, the average load of boats with *down* freight, was but thirty tons.—(See p. 438, vol. xii., Merchants' Magazine.)

In consequence of bringing into use some of the completed work of the Erie Canal enlargement, and improving the remaining part of the canal, its capacity has been so increased, that the average load of boats with *down* freight, in 1845, was over sixty tons.

This increase of load is, in some degree, owing to improvements in the construction of the boats, but mainly to the great improvements in the canal itself.

The effect of this increased capacity of the boats has been to reduce the cost of transportation about 30 per cent below what it was in 1838.

H. J.

New York, May 15th, 1846.

## Art. VIII.—THE SUB-TREASURY.

THE act of Congress for establishing a sub-treasury, has passed the House of Representatives by a great majority; indeed, two-thirds of the members voted for it. It was carried by this great majority, upon the ground of being a substitute for the United States' Bank, and as the evidence of hostility to such an institution. Its passage has been delayed in the Senate, from an apprehension of some of the more intelligent members of the ruling party, that it would produce such a convulsion in the currency as would impair and jeopardize their influence. It is, indeed, too true. If it passes, it will not only operate most unfavorably upon the influence of the party, but produce a degree of embarrassment and distress equal to that which was experienced in 1839. It would operate with the greatest pressure upon the city of New York. Nearly three-quarters of the revenue of the United States is collected in that city. Here the specie must be collected for accumulation in the vaults of the sub-treasury. Suppose the law to be now in operation, what would be the situation of the banks of the city and state? The government has now on hand a surplus of twelve millions of dollars, which, by the operation of the law, must be locked up, in specie, in their vaults. The immediate consequence would be the suspension of specie payments by the banks, or the bankruptcy of the whole body of the merchants. Are the merchants generally aware of this? If there are but eight millions of specie in the city of New York, as the bank returns show, how is it possible for the government to hoard this immense sum of twelve millions in their vaults, without producing such a revulsion as we have never known? Suppose that, in consequence of the great emigration from Europe to this country, the fever of speculation should arise for the public lands, as in 1837. This sum would be more than doubled, and even thirty millions of specie might be collected in the vaults of the sub-treasury. That this is not an improbable statement, it is only necessary to recur to the fact that, only a few years since, about thirty millions did accumulate in the banks, to the credit of the United States, which was divided and distributed among the states according to federal representation. Can any one foresee the general calamity and ruin which would arise from such arbitrary interference with the currency of the country? What is the occasion for it? Not that the public funds are insecure; no loss, under the present system, has been sustained. Every bank, and every individual, gives to the Secretary of the Treasury such public stocks as are satisfactory. It is the watch-word of party, alone, which, in the excitement arising from it, has carried the bill so far.

The inquiry will be made, why this sub-treasury law will be so embarrassing to the country, when it had been in operation nearly a year, with no apparent influence, and repealed by the Whig administration in 1841. The reason is clear. The government had no funds on hand. It did not pay its debtors with punctuality. It possessed no specie to hoard in a sub-treasury.

What is the course pursued by France and England, the two most enlightened nations in the world? These nations more nearly approximate to the United States in commerce, intelligence, population, and free institutions, than any other nations. Both these great nations, after passing through many revolutions in government as well as currency, have settled

down upon banks of deposit and circulation. One great advantage is, that it enables the government, if the public exigencies require it, to accumulate surplus revenue, without any undue interference with the currency of the country. Sub-treasuries are used in Turkey, and most of the despotic governments of Asia. Gold and silver are exclusively used by those nations that possess no credit. It is the peculiar feature of modern civilization, that bills of exchange and bank bills are used as a substitute and representative of specie. The effect has been to give those nations which have most judiciously exercised this attribute of sovereignty, a great ascendancy in the commerce of the world. Indeed, England, partly from this cause, possesses a commerce far exceeding, in richness and extent, any known, either in ancient or modern times.

What are the advantages of the sub-treasury over the existing system? It has no advantage. In respect to security, it is fully equal. The Secretary of the Treasury does not deposit a dollar with the richest bank in the country, without security. He requires either United States' stock, or stocks of the most solvent states, as collateral security. If, from political causes, at any future period, these stocks should decline in value, the same causes would affect the security of specie deposited with a sub-treasurer. What are its disadvantages? They are great, and without anything to counterbalance them. In the event of an accumulation of specie in the sub-treasury, such as we have now on hand, and it may be twice or thrice the sum, we shall have a general embarrassment and insolvency throughout the country. If the whole of the specie of the city of New York is required to be placed in the vaults of the sub-treasury, how can the banks continue specie payments? The only alternative is a general stoppage of payments by the merchants, or a stoppage by the banks. If the latter, we shall have a depreciated paper currency, such as actually occurred in the last war with England, and, more recently, in 1837, from an excess of importation of foreign goods. Such an event would be a calamity; a depreciated currency demoralizes a people; it paralyzes their industry. In the transition of the banks in 1816 and 1838 to a resumption of specie payments, thousands upon thousands have lost the fruits of the labor of years. A paralysis of the currency, such as the sub-treasury may produce, would affect every individual in the country. Credit is more general in this country than any other. It arises from our prosperity.

In Europe the lower classes have little interest in the government, and are not much affected by its provisional measures, as they do not look beyond the situation in which they are placed. In this country the humblest individual looks forward to an improvement of his condition. Such has been the situation of the country, arising from the many millions of the richest lands unoccupied, and an exemption from all taxes, except the necessary expenses of government, that any one possessed of health and industry can attain a moderate share of independence. Credit is therefore universal in the cities, as well as the interior. The pioneer who purchases his six hundred acres of land in the wilderness, is in credit in proportion as much as the most opulent merchant in the city. The sub-treasury would affect him most sensibly, as the currency would be affected.

The judicious exercise of this distinguishing mark of modern civilization, the use of bills of exchange, and banks of deposit and circulation, has produced the same effect here that it has in Europe. No nation in Europe

has advanced so much in population, commerce, manufactures, and agriculture, as the United States since the declaration of independence. One of the principal causes is the universal system of credit which prevails throughout the country. This places the poor man in a great degree on a par with the rich man. It stimulates the industry of our people, and has contributed greatly to our prosperity. Indeed, the advantages which we possess over the inhabitants of Europe, by our hundreds of millions of unoccupied lands, and exemption from onerous taxes, would be neutralized without credit to avail ourselves of these. This is afforded by banks of circulation and deposit.

There is a popular illusion prevalent with regard to a Bank of the United States—that it is aristocratic, and promotes the interests of the rich, instead of the poor. So far from it, banks are essentially the poor man's friend. By the assistance of a bank, a person of limited means and a good character may have as fair a position for the transaction of business as the richest man in the community. The credit which is obtained from them is diffused through all the classes of society. The farmer and mechanic, if they do not receive it from the bank, receive it indirectly from those who do. This enables the one to add to his agricultural improvements, and the other to his stock of manufactured goods, which increase the aggregate amount of the productive industry of the country. Like the "choicest of heaven's gifts," they are liable to abuse, and have been abused in this country. But the abuse of what is useful is no argument against its use. H. S. R.

## Art. IX.—MARITIME LAW—NO. XI.

### RESPONDENTIA LOANS.

A RESPONDENTIA contract is a marine hypothecation, whereby a certain sum of money or goods are loaned on the pledge of the cargo of a ship or some part of it, on a voyage at sea, with the condition that if the cargo or merchandise perish, or be lost by the perils of the sea, during the voyage, or the continuance of the time stipulated, the party advancing the loan shall have no recourse for his principal or premium against the person of the borrower, or his goods, estate, or any right to recover further than the proceeds of such part of the cargo or merchandise as may be saved, deducting salvage expenses, or the damages the goods may receive on the voyage, by the perils of the sea.

In case of the safe arrival of the cargo at the place designated, or its safety during the time stipulated on the loss or damage of it by the acts of the borrower, his agents or servants, the lender shall be entitled to the repayment of the loan, with a maritime interest, for the risk he has run of losing the whole of his loan by the perils of the sea.

The difference between a bottomry and respondentia loan consists in the fact that one is a loan upon a ship, the other upon the goods or merchandise laden, or to be laden, on board. The money is to be repaid to the lender with maritime interest, upon the safe arrival of the ship in one case, and of the goods or merchandise in the other. In other respects these contracts are nearly the same, and are governed by the same principles. The ship and her tackle are liable, and the person of the borrower, in the first case; and in the latter case the lender will hold a lien

on the goods, and an action against the borrower for the repayment of the loan, and maritime interest in case the goods are not lost by the perils of the sea. But a loan upon goods for an outward voyage alone, does not always give the lender a lien upon the goods purchased for the homeward voyage. Indeed, it never does, unless the goods have been purchased with the proceeds of the outward cargo, and on the account of the owner of the outer cargo.

A respondentia loan, like that of bottomry, differs materially from a simple loan with a mortgage given as security for the repayment of the debt. In a loan, the money is at the risk of the borrower, and must be paid at all events; but in a respondentia loan, the money is at the risk of the lender, during the voyage, or the time stipulated. Upon a simple loan and mortgage, the legal interest can only be recovered, while upon a respondentia loan, any interest may be legally recovered which the parties may agree upon; yet to obtain a maritime interest, the contract must be in writing, and it is essential to this contract that the marine interest be in writing, and the rate mentioned in it. It is the essence of this contract that the money loaned, or something equivalent to it, be exposed to the perils of the sea, at the risk of the lender alone; and by the marine law, as it is found in all commercial countries at the present day, the borrower will be held to prove and justify himself that he really had goods and merchandise on board the ship, designated in the contract for the voyage, or at the time stipulated, to the full value of the loan, and exposed to the perils of the sea, otherwise the contract will be paid as a respondentia agreement, and the borrower will be held liable to return the money loaned with maritime interest, though the goods are lost by the perils of the sea. As a general rule money may be lent in respondentia on any object which may be subject matter of insurance, and the loan is usually followed by a hypothecation of goods, chattels, and freights, as security for the loan. But money may be borrowed on respondentia without hypothecating anything; the borrower may, and often does, take the money on board with him in specie or bills of exchange, in order that he may employ it in trade in the course of the voyage. This form of the loan was called in the Roman law PECUNIA TRAJECTITIA, and seems to have been the manner in which the original contract of respondentia grew into existence among the ancient Romans. Another form of respondentia loan is, when a person who is about to undertake a voyage, borrowed money to purchase a cargo, and gives a hypothecation on it for the repayment of the loan, which was made to depend on the safe arrival of the goods at the port of destination. This loan was called, in the ancient civil law, money loaned *maritima usura*. The loan was on the outward cargo of the vessel, and was often made to cover the homeward cargo where it was the property of the borrower. When it was upon the merchandise for the outward voyage, this alone was hypothecated. The lender in most cases had only the personal security of the borrower for the repayment of the loan, as the merchandise was sold or disposed of in a foreign country. This form of contract exists with us at the present day, and the lender will have only the personal security of the borrower for the repayment of the loan, and maritime interest, unless he take a bill of lading or an assignment of the cargo hypothecated, with the right to receive the proceeds of the goods as security when they arrive at the place of destination on the outward voyage.

The ancient Greek merchants at Athens, in the days of Demosthenes,

the orator, often loaned money on goods for a fixed time, or for a voyage to a particular place or country. If it was lent only for a voyage outwards, the principal and interest became due at the place of destination, either to the creditor himself, or his agent or servant, who oftentimes went along in the ship laden with the goods hypothecated to receive the money at the place of destination, as well as to watch the conduct of the master and crew on the voyage. When the contract was for the voyage both inwards and outwards, the payment was made after the return. In these agreements, there was generally a double security; the debtor being bound in goods to twice the amount of the loan, without being able to raise other money upon them. In an agreement for voyages both inwards and outwards, if the goods given in security were sold, fresh commodities of equal value were to be reladen on board for the homeward voyage—these goods became hypothecated in law to the lender. Until the time of the repayment, the creditor was bound to leave the security untouched if it was safe, and at the expiration of the loan, the debtor was obliged to surrender the whole security, or make payment of his loan and interest, or suffer a heavy punishment for the violation of his contract. The agreement of bottomry was made binding by means of an instrument in writing, styled a nautical contract, called *nautike sungraphe.*

We will now refer to another form of respondentia contract, recognized in the tribunals of commerce and admiralty in all countries at the present day. This is properly a forced loan which grows out of the necessities of trade on a voyage of a ship in a foreign country, or in a place where the owners do not reside.

Ships and vessels, while on a voyage, may be driven into ports in foreign countries by stress of weather, pursuits of pirates, or enemies, and it often becomes necessary under such circumstances, to hypothecate the cargo, or sell it, or some portion of it, to pay the expenses of the ship while detained on the voyage, or in foreign countries. The application of the cargo or property of the shipper to the necessities of the voyage, is called a FORCED LOAN, and the owner, whose property has been thus taken or sold to raise money for the repairs of the ship, or to supply her with necessaries on the voyage, by way of a forced loan, has the right, by the maritime law, to look to the security of the ship, as well as the individual responsibility of the ship-owner, for remuneration.

This species of contract involves the question of the power and duties of masters of vessels in cases of necessity, while abroad. The master is often necessitated to execute several bottomry contracts, as he may be be compelled, by the perils of the sea, to put into more than one port on the voyage. First—he should endeavor to raise money on the personal responsibility of the owners of the ship. Second—if he cannot procure the necessary funds for the voyage in this manner, he may hypothecate the ship and freights to raise the money, and if the ship and freights are conceived insufficient for the bottomry loan, the master is authorized, in addition, to pledge the cargo. Third—not being able to raise money in this last form of the contract, he may, in cases of necessity, sell the cargo, or a portion of it, to effect the object. Necessity in this case creates the law; it supersedes the rules which govern men in ordinary cases of commercial transactions. Whatever, under all the circumstances, is reasonable and just, in such cases, is likewise legal.*

* Jacobson's Sea Laws, p. 369.

By the ancient laws of *Wisby*, it was provided that whenever the master of a vessel on a voyage was forced to sell any portion of the cargo of the ship, for want of money or victuals, the ship became hypothecated for the goods sold until satisfaction was made, though another master had been in the meantime appointed in the ship, and the ship had been sold, and put into the hands of a new owner.*

The same principle is found practised in the maritime codes of all nations in case of jettisons, and sacrifice of portions, or the whole of the cargo, of a vessel on a voyage, to preserve the remainder, or the ship, from loss by the perils of the sea. The doctrine of contributions has been acknowledged from the earliest periods of maritime trade and commerce.

The ancient Rhodians made laws on this subject. These were followed by the Greeks and Romans. Indeed, all persons whose goods have been sacrificed, or damaged, or suffered charges for the common good, or safety of the ship or cargo, ought to be indemnified. Justice requires that equality should take place by contributions among all those interested, and who have been in danger of losing all, where some have saved what was in risk only because others sacrificed theirs for the common benefit.†

These should make recompense by contribution. Hence arises the doctrine of marine averages. It is also upon the principles above stated that the master of a ship, who has paid off material men and artificers with his own money, for the necessary repairs of the ship on the voyage, is substituted, in point of claim, to the rights of such artificers and material men. The law protects him by a hypothecation upon the ship, her tackle, apparel, and furniture, because it became his duty to extricate the vessel entrusted to his care.‡

In such cases the law gives the master an implied hypothecation upon the vessel and her freights, for the repayment of the money advanced for the necessities of the voyage. And if a cargo has been sacrificed for the necessities of the ship, reason and justice can do no less than give the owner a lien upon the vessel for security of the money due; nevertheless, this form of respondentia or bottomry contract does not carry maritime, but only legal interest. The owners of the vessel will be personally liable to refund the money due; and, indeed, in all cases where the master or the crew sell, embezzle, or destroy the cargo, the owners will be held responsible, because all persons employed in the navigation of a vessel are the direct servants of the owners of the ship, in different grades of authority.§

A marine hypothecation is a right in a thing constituted for security of the creditor, and partakes of the nature of the sale or vendition of the thing hypothecated to the creditor to answer a loan upon the security of it. The creditor becomes part owner to the extent of his loan, and for the repayment of it, while the debtor may be said to retain the dominion of the property.

The ancient authorities in the civil law advance the proposition that nothing can be hypothecated which cannot be the subject of a sale.‖

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* Laws of Wisby, article 45.
† Domat Civil Law, Libre 2, title 9.
‡ Wendell, p. 315; Van Brockelin, *vs.* Ingersoll.
§ 4 Louisiana Reports, p. 340; W. L. Jordon, *vs.* White.
‖ Pothier on Hypothecations, tome 20, p. 194.

When property is hypothecated to secure a loan of money, or goods, the lender acquires an interest in it to the extent of his loan, and he is now regarded in law as a part owner or proprietor. The borrower is considered as his agent, to the extent of the loan, to see that the thing hypothecated is preserved; (the perils of the sea alone excepted.) The borrower, however, uniting in himself the character of an agent, still is a principal party to the agreement, and he assumes to act in good faith, and to do all things possible to effect the objects of the voyage, and to preserve the property hypothecated from damage and loss.

The ancient ordinances of Bilboa* declared, in setting forth the forms of bottomry and respondentia obligations, that the lender and borrower were equally sharers and interested in the assignation of the goods, to run the risks in the ship; and in case of total loss, the borrower was to remain free of his goods, estate, and person, for the repayment of the loan. But in case of shipwreck, and a part of the goods hypothecated were saved, then the lender was to inherit what should be saved for the sum of the loan, and the borrower for what they were worth beyond the loan, and no more; both parties remaining sharers and partners to the intent, that, abating salvage expenses, the remainder, nett, shall be parted and apportioned in loss and gain, according to the company's account.† A. N.

# MERCANTILE LAW CASES.

### MARINE INSURANCE ON SPECIE AND MERCHANDISE.

In the Supreme Judicial Court of Massachusetts, Judge Hubbard presiding. Daniel Deshon, *vs.* The Merchants' Ins. Co. Same, *vs.* The Tremont Ins. Co.

At the March term of this court, 1845, certain points were decided in these cases, and new trials ordered. At the last November term they came up for trial, before Shaw, C. J. The first is an action upon a policy of insurance, made by the Merchants' Insurance Co., dated 28th June, 1843, by which they insured $3,000 on merchandise, and $3,000 on specie, on board the schooner Drusilla, at and from Boston to port or ports in Hayti, also, on the same property, or investments thereof, on board said schooner at and thence to Boston. The policy purported to insure the said Deshon "for whom it may concern, payable to the said Deshon." The policy in the other case is so similar that it is not necessary to specify it more particularly. The actions by consent were submitted to the jury together.

The plaintiff had amended his declaration, so as to set out the policy, as made for whom it might concern, and by filing counts, setting out a joint interest with Hutchings, a separate interest in himself, and a separate interest in Hutchings. The policy, notice of loss, and abandonment, were not contested. Proof of loss was offered, to show a destruction of the property by fire a few days after the vessel sailed.

1. To prove the plaintiff's interest, he called as a witness David D. Stackpole, a clerk in the plaintiff's employment, in June, 1843. He verified the invoice of the cargo shipped on board, and the bill of lading; and proved the purchase of the merchandise by Deshon, which composed the cargo, and the shipment of the same, together with $3,000 in specie, on board the vessel, on the 30th June, 1843. He also testified to a letter, signed by Hutchings, and addressed to Deshon, dated 28th June, 1843, requesting him to procure and ship a cargo, on his account, to have a commission of 2 1-2 per cent, and the same for guaranty, to consign the cargo to his own friends, to return the proceeds in coffee, and insure the vessel.

* See Ordinances Bilboa. † 2 Story's Equity, p. 505.

This letter was written by the witness, after the vessel sailed, and signed by Hutchings, to be left with Deshon. The object, as the witness stated, was to have something to show the character of the transaction.

Stackpole, being inquired of, what was the contract between Deshon and Hutchings, the owner of the vessel, as to the purchase and shipment of this cargo, it was objected that parol evidence ought not to be admitted, to prove the contract, because it was proved in writing, as contained in the invoice, bill of lading, and letter of Hutchings to Deshon, and also a letter of instruction given by Deshon to the master of the vessel; but the objection was overruled, and the witness further testified as follows:—"I heard the bargain; Mr. Hutchings wished Mr. Deshon to purchase a cargo and ship it in his own name, and assign it to his friends in Port-au-Prince, the proceeds to be invested in coffee, and come back to his (Deshon's) address. The return cargo was to include the proceeds of the outward cargo, and of the specie. Mr. Deshon was to have the possession and control of the cargo, and Hutchings to be interested in the profit or loss of the voyage; he was to receive all profit over and above the cost and charges, and his (Deshon's) commissions; and he was to sustain the loss, if any occurred. The captain was to be under Mr. Deshon's directions, as to the sale of the property in Hayti, and he (Deshon) purchased and selected the cargo here. He purchased the whole cargo, and paid for it. Hutchings agreed to place a certain amount of money to go with the cargo, to be invested in a return cargo as above stated, as collateral security, and to indemnify Deshon against any loss which might arise. Mr. Deshon did in fact furnish part of the specie placed on board, and it was afterwards made up by Hutchings, after the vessel sailed, and placed to his credit in account."

In reference to this objection, the documents and letters referred to, were to make part of the case, and if, in the opinion of the whole court, the parol evidence ought not to have been admitted, the verdict was to be set aside, and a new trial granted.

2. It appeared by the testimony of a witness called by the plaintiff, and master of the vessel, that all the water on board was stowed on deck. It was contended that the vessel was on that account unseaworthy. It was ruled that it was the duty of the owners to have on board a sufficient quantity of fresh water, well secured, otherwise the vessel was not seaworthy; that the fact of all the water being stowed on deck did not necessarily render the vessel unseaworthy; but that it was a question of fact for the jury upon the evidence, taking into consideration the number of the crew and officers, the destination of the vessel, the length of the voyage, the quantity of water on board, and the manner of the stowage, whether the vessel was seaworthy for the voyage; and as to the burden of proof, it was ruled, that it was matter of defence, that the vessel was unseaworthy on this account, and must be proved by the defendants.

3. The main ground of defence was, that the loss was not a fair loss; that the vessel was designedly destroyed by the procurement and connivance of Hutchings, the owner, for whose account, in whole or in part, these policies were made. Evidence, particularly the testimony of one Edward Thomas, was offered upon that subject, taken by deposition. He was offered as a witness who would appear not to be entitled to full credit; but who would be, to some extent, corroborated and supported, so as to have weight with the jury. When the eighth interrogatory and the answer thereto were about to be read, they were objected to by the plaintiff, on the ground that, if it was proposed to prove by him, that he had made certain statements in regard to the probable loss of this vessel, before the event happened, with a view to sustain his credit by his own testimony before it was impeached, this was not admissible. Whereupon it was decided that this question and answer could not be read at that stage of the trial. If it should become a material fact, that the witness declared his knowledge to other persons, and such persons should be called to testify to it, this decision would not preclude such evidence, when offered. It might stand on a different footing. The evidence was now offered to support the witness's own credit, for which purpose it was inadmissible. To this the defendant excepted.

A verdict was thereupon taken by consent for the plaintiff, in the case against

the Tremont Insurance Company, for the sum of $——, and against the Merchants' Insurance Company, for the sum of $——, subject in both cases to the opinion of the whole court, upon the correctness of the points thus decided; and in case the decision should be in favor of the plaintiff, these verdicts were further subject to be amended by the report of an assessor, if the amount should not be agreed upon by the parties; or the amounts for which the plaintiff should be entitled to judgment, were to be ascertained by the court, without an assessor, if they should see fit, the verdicts amended accordingly, and judgment rendered thereon for the plaintiff;—otherwise the verdicts to be set aside, and new trials granted.

Rufus Choate and Henry H. Fuller for the plaintiff. C. P. and B. R. Curtis for the defendants.

Hubbard, J., delivered the opinion of the court. (1) With regard to the first point, the letter of Hutchings was not a contract in itself, but was merely evidence, tending to show a contract, and for that purpose to be taken in connection with other evidence, documentary or verbal. The testimony of Stackpole was not, therefore, evidence to explain a written contract, and was rightfully admitted. (2) The question of seaworthiness in this case was properly left to the jury. Seaworthiness was implied, when there was no evidence to the contrary. When unseaworthiness was relied upon, in defence to an action on a policy of insurance, it must be proved. It might be proved by a variety of facts, and by inference as well as by direct facts. The mere fact that all the water on board was stowed on deck, was only a fact tending to show unseaworthiness, but did not, of itself, render the vessel unseaworthy. The statute of the United States imposed a penalty for not having a sufficient quantity of water stowed below; but that did not render the vessel unseaworthy in case the statute was not complied with. The question of unseaworthiness was simply a question of fact for the jury to pass upon. (3) With regard to the interrogatory which was put to Thomas, it was very clear that he could not be permitted to strengthen his own testimony, by adding that he had told others the same story. If this species of testimony were admitted, it would lead to great mischief. But if other witnesses had been called, and they had been asked whether he had told them the same story, that would rest on different ground. It would present a question which did not arise in the present case, and which did not therefore become necessary now to decide.

Judgment for the plaintiffs on the verdict; it being intimated by the counsel on both sides that there would be no disagreement as to the amount.

### LIABILITY OF COMMON CARRIERS.

In the Commercial Court, New Orleans, Louisiana, Samuel A. Aby, *vs.* Steamboat Paul Jones, Captain Walworth, *et al.*

Walworth and others are owners of the steamer *Paul Jones*, which plies between New Orleans and Vicksburg, and the intermediate places, as a weekly packet. On the 16th of January, 1846, the clerk of Muir & Patterson took to the boat two packages, containing sovereigns, one to the value of $1,600, addressed to Pierson & Hume, of Grand Gulf; and the other, to the value of $404 21-100, addressed to the plaintiff Aby, at the same place, and requested Giles, the clerk, to put them in his iron chest and deliver them according to these directions. The clerk of the boat took charge of them accordingly. They were received by the clerk of the boat in his office, where he was signing bills of lading, and transacting other business of the boat. The boat arrived at Grand Gulf late in the night. There is usually an agent of the boat at that place, but he was absent on that occasion. Neither of the parties to whom the packages of money were addressed, having presented themselves, the clerk of the boat delivered the packages of money to Fulkerson, to be by him delivered according to their address. Fulkerson is a person of sufficient respectability and standing to be entrusted with such a charge, but he is of slender pecuniary responsibility. On his way from the boat, Fulkerson met the clerk of Pierson & Hume, to whom he delivered the larger package of money. The packages for Aby he took to his office, and deposited in an iron chest, in which he left the key, and from thence it

was stolen during the night. The present action is brought to make the owners of the boat liable for the loss. The boat is one of those engaged in what is called the cotton trade, and these boats carry up packages of money of greater or less amount; sometimes, when shippers wish to insure, they take a bill of lading for the money, in which case freight is paid; but on most occasions the packages of money are carried without any charge being made for the trouble and responsibility, and it was not intended or expected that any charge for freight would have been made in the present instance—the carrying of money in this manner is generally practised, and this practice is fully known to the captain and owners. In the present case, when a claim for the loss was made on the captain, who is part owner, he did not pretend to deny the authority of the clerk to receive and carry money in this manner, but only insisted that he had performed his duty in the manner in which he had delivered it. The practice is too general a one not to be known to the captain and owners.

It is contended by the plaintiff's counsel, that when, in the course of their business, common carriers take charge of property, their liability is the same, whether they receive hire for so doing or not; that they have a legal right to make a charge, and if they waive such right, such waiver does not lessen their legal liability; that the liability of common carriers does not rest on the receipt of hire, but on the ground of public policy, which holds all persons who assume the character of common carriers, to a strict accountability. On these points he has cited various authorities, viz: Story on Bailments, s. 495, p. 321; Jones on Bailments, 103, note and authorities there cited. The defendants' counsel resists the claim on the grounds that the petition alleges that the defendants were carriers for hire, when the evidence shows that there was no intention on the part of the boat to charge him, and no expectation on the part of the plaintiff to pay it; and that if the clerk made an agreement to carry without hire, he went beyond the line of his duty, and the owners are not liable for his acts. This is entirely too narrow a ground upon which to place the matter. The allegation that defendants were carriers for hire, is only another mode of designating the defendants as common carriers, and if they disclaim the act of the clerk in agreeing to carry without hire, they could always recover on a *quantum meruit;* but they cannot shake off the liability arising from the receipt of the property; moreover, the practice of carrying money, without charge, was known to the owners, and was sanctioned by them. Defendants' counsel also relied upon the case of Wilcox & Fearn *vs.* the steamer *Philadelphia*, 9 L. R. 80. That case does not appear to me to be at all applicable; the money was deposited by a passenger temporarily with the clerk to relieve himself from the care of it, and it was decided on the law relative to deposits, not upon the law relative to common carriers.

I concur with the authorities cited by the plaintiff's counsel, and the rules there laid down, viz: that a common carrier is responsible for the delivery of the property or money which he takes charge of in the usual course of his business, whether he makes any charge for carrying it or not; and that, on the ground of public policy, it is necessary to hold them to this responsibility. The defendants are responsible for the delivery of the money placed in their charge, to the person to whom the package was addressed; and if he saw fit to deliver it to Fulkerson, they adopted him as their sub-agent, and are liable for his neglects and omissions, and, in their turn, have their recourse against him. The clerk, Giles, has been made a defendant in the suit, but as the plaintiff gets a recovery against the owners of the boat, as common carriers, they are not entitled to any judgment against Giles, who is merely agent of the owners.

It is, therefore, considered that with regard to Charles Giles, there be judgment against the plaintiff, as in case of non-suit, and that the plaintiff pay the costs of making Giles a party to this suit; and it is further considered that the plaintiff, Samuel H. Aby, recovers from the defendants, James Walworth, Thomas F. Eikert, Simeon Doyle, and Nathaniel Montgomery, jointly and severally, the sum of $404 21, with interest thereon at the rate of 5 per cent per annum, from the 27th of February, 1846, until paid, with costs of suit, and a privilege on the steamboat *Paul Jones*.

This case, which we find in the New Orleans Commercial Times, rendered in

the Commercial Court of that city, with respect to the liability of common carriers, is important and interesting to the public, more especially in our large commercial cities, where so much business of the kind is transacted.

# COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE AND REVIEW.

THE SUB-TREASURY AND THE WAR WITH MEXICO—AMOUNT AND LOCATION OF THE UNITED STATES DEPOSITS—MONTHLY IMPORTS AND DUTIES AT NEW YORK—MEANS AND LIABILITIES OF NEW YORK BANKS—CITY AND COUNTRY BANKS DISTINGUISHED—BROKEN BANKS—ARMY OF THE UNITED STATES—REVENUE AND EXPENDITURES OF THE GOVERNMENT—EXPORTS FROM NEW ORLEANS TO NORTHERN CITIES—RECEIPTS OF PRODUCE AT NEW ORLEANS—EXPORTS OF DOMESTIC PRODUCE TO GREAT BRITAIN—IMPORTANCE OF THE ENGLISH MARKET—ADVANCED FREIGHTS AND INSURANCE, ETC., ETC.

THE events of the past month have been as important as unexpected. The month of May came in with a severe pressure in the money market, arising from apprehensions in relation to the sub-treasury plan of finance of the federal government. This soon gave place to important accounts from the southern frontier, to the effect that the Mexicans had crossed the Rio Grande, and attacked the United States army under General Taylor. This was immediately followed by the passage of a bill through both Houses of Congress, with a preamble as follows: "Whereas, by the act of the Republic of Mexico, a state of war exists between that government and the United States." The bill then provides for the enrollment of a force not to exceed fifty thousand volunteers, and appropriates $10,000,000 out of any moneys that may be in the treasury, for the expenses of the war. It also authorizes the President to complete all public armed vessels, and to purchase, equip, arm, and charter such merchant vessels and steamboats as, upon examination, may be found fit. This bill passed the House by a vote of 173 to 14, and the Senate by a vote of 40 to 2, Thomas Clayton and John Davis voting in the negative, and Messrs. Berrien, Calhoun, and Evans, being in their seats, did not vote. The leading objections to the bill, on the part of those who voted against it, seem to be that the preamble set forth the existence of a war, which, in fact, could not constitutionally exist without the declaration of Congress. Under such a construction, the country might go through years of hostilities, and suffer defeats and gain victories, without ever being at "war" at all. The first commercial effect of this state of affairs, was an increased pressure upon the money market, and a withdrawal of the annual credits on southern produce paper. There was a great indisposition to believe that war would actually result, even from the hostilities that had already taken place. Nevertheless, the expenditures of the government, already appropriated to war matters, are of a nature to change the currents for the employment of money, and, in so far, to produce a severe pressure in those channels in which it has hitherto been occupied. In our last number, we alluded to the manner in which the public deposits are usually employed. The amount of these deposits, according to the reports of the Treasurer of the United States, have been as follows:—

AMOUNT AND LOCATION OF UNITED STATES' DEPOSITS.

| | January 1st. | February. | March. | April. | May. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Boston,..... | $1,118,938 | $678,683 | $723,561 | $1,167,727 | $1,570,887 |
| New York,..... | 3,584,514 | 3,360,255 | 3,873,133 | 4,925,811 | 6,432,107 |
| Philadelphia,..... | 417,557 | 266,682 | 302,941 | 559,027 | 769,582 |
| Washington,..... | 539,917 | 514,287 | 513,220 | 530,078 | 571,781 |
| New Orleans,..... | 590,864 | 616,863 | 284,578 | 625,534 | 566,388 |
| Mints,..... | 1,000,000 | 950,000 | 850,000 | 910,000 | 879,000 |
| Other places,..... | 2,569,806 | 2,059,895 | 3,203,124 | 3,066,216 | 3,220,153 |
| Total,..... | $9,824,596 | $8,446,665 | $9,750,557 | $11,784,393 | $14,009,898 |

More than one-half of this money is employed where it is collected, viz: with the New York and Boston banks. The total amount has increased near three and a quarter millions during the four months indicated in the table, and the monthly progress of business in New York city has been comparatively as follows:—

MONTHLY IMPORTS AND DUTIES, PORT OF NEW YORK.

| | 1844. | | 1845. | | 1846. | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Imports. | Duties. | Imports. | Duties. | Imports. | Duties. |
| January,. | $6,683,354 | $1,852,577 | $6,210,159 | $1,687,025 | $5,219,809 | $1,476,394 |
| February, | 6,627,511 | 2,131,926 | 4,730,298 | 1,347,534 | 4,652,292 | 1,266,663 |
| March,.... | 5,237,225 | 1,641,140 | 6,174,077 | 1,602,303 | 9,750,269 | 2,617,847 |
| April,..... | 7,463,683 | 1,805,706 | 5,908,360 | 1,534,885 | 6,334,271 | 1,385,189 |
| Total,.... | $26,011,773 | $7,431,349 | $23,022,894 | $6,171,747 | $25,956,641 | $6,746,023 |

The imports in March were very large, and a great demand upon commercial capital to pay the cash duties, necessarily resulted. At the same time, the banks that received those moneys, laboring under apprehensions in relation to the probable action of the sub-treasury, were very cautious in reloaning them, while, at the same time, they sought, by all means, to obtain as much specie from the other institutions as possible. A demand upon the commerce of this city for $2,500,000 in one month, or nearly $7,000,000 in four months, to be either locked up in banks, or loaned out in channels different from those out of which it was drawn, of necessity created a pressure. It is a well recognized fact, that to change the channels of employment for money, produces as much distress, as to withdraw it from employment altogether. There is now an accumulation of near $13,000,000 in the vaults of the banks, and of the amount, $10,000,000 has been appropriated for expenditure in the Mexican war. The sum appropriated will not bear the expense of equipping and supporting half the proposed army three months, and a large portion of it must be spent on the borders of Mexico, within that period; consequently, the large sums now on deposit here and at Boston, will be drawn, and its withdrawal will produce a severe contraction, even although it should not be required in specie. The banks are, by no means, in a condition to sustain a large and extraordinary demand for money, of a character so peremptory as that of the government for war expenses. The following is a comparative statement of the returns of the banks of the State of New York, to the 1st of May, 1846.

IMMEDIATE MEANS AND LIABILITIES OF THE NEW YORK BANKS.

| *Immediate liab's.* | Nov. 1843. | Aug. 1844. | Nov. 1844. | Feb. 1845. | Nov. 1845. | Feb. 1846. | May. 1846. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Deposits. . . . . | $27,390,160 | $28,757,122 | $30,391 622 | $25,976,946 | $31,773,991 | $29,654,401 | $30,866,337 |
| Nett Circulation. | 12,952,045 | 15,349,905 | 17,647,182 | 16,196,394 | 19,366 377 | 18,407,733 | 18 409,977 |
| Due banks, . . . | 4.941,414 | 7,744,118 | 5,664,110 | 3 816,252 | 3,296 249 | 4,663,073 | 2,973,688 |
| Canal Fund, . . . | 1,157,203 | 1,210,794 | 1.534,553 | 1,607,572 | 1.581.330 | 896,843 | 646,398 |
| United States, . . | 1,645,390 | 3,674.171 | 3,786,961 | 700,064 | 3.002.649 | 2.580,711 | 3,493,682 |
| Total, . . . . | $48,076,142 | $56,735,410 | $59,023,728 | $48,296,528 | $59,020,596 | $56,201,761 | $56,391,982 |
| *Immediate means.* | | | | | | | |
| Specie, . . . . | $11,502,789 | $10,161,974 | $8,968,092 | $6,803,236 | $6.884,545 | $6,361,383 | $8.361,383 |
| Cash items, . . | 3,102,856 | 4,916,869 | 6,047,598 | 4,839,886 | 5,947,585 | 6,370,309 | 5 839,769 |
| Total, . . . . | $14,605,645 | $15,108,836 | $15,015,690 | $11,733,122 | $14,832.120 | $14.731.685 | $14.011 394 |
| Loans, . . . . | 61,514,149 | 71.643,929 | 73,091,738 | 66,883,098 | 74,780 435 | 71,897,580 | 72,591.431 |
| Excess of liability, | 33,479,607 | 41,626,574 | 43,008,108 | 36,493,406 | 44,188,476 | 41,470,071 | 42,380,678 |

The excess of liabilities now is nearly 30 per cent more than in November, 1843, and has increased during the quarter ending May 1st, notwithstanding the alarms produced by the expected passage of the sub-treasury act. It may be remarked that the amount due the United States is not correctly given. Many of the largest depositors do not distinguish between the government deposits and their private deposits; the Bank of Commerce, for instance, held, on the 1st of May, $822,346 of public money, which is included under the general head, deposits. The actual amount due the United States, was $6,026,835, instead of $3,490,622. The "cash items" include a considerable amount of loans on stocks. The city banks may be distinguished from the country, as follows:—

| | CITY. | | COUNTRY. | | TOTAL. | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | *February.* Dollars. | *May.* Dollars. | *February.* Dollars. | *May.* Dollars. | *February.* Dollars. | *May.* Dollars. |
| Loans,..... | 42,866,558 | 41,412,515 | 29,031,012 | 31,578,916 | 71,897,586 | 72,991,431 |
| Specie,..... | 7,589,306 | 7,291,447 | 972,076 | 880,177 | 8,361,383 | 8,171,624 |
| Circulation,. | 5,995,868 | 6,313,506 | 15,164,119 | 14,952,986 | 21,159,987 | 21,266,492 |
| Deposits,.... | 24,362,319 | 23,650,719 | 5,292,082 | 7,217,658 | 29,654,405 | 30,868,377 |

The loans and circulation in this return, embrace the figures of two or three banks whose returns were not placed in the general statement. Three banks have fallen into discredit, viz: the White Plains, the Lewis County, and the Farmers' and Drovers' of Buffalo, in this state.

The extended condition of these institutions we have noticed in former numbers, and it is evident that an unusual direction given to currents of money, such as that produced by a war expenditure, must have an important influence upon all those branches of business which depend upon bank facilities. It is, undoubtedly, the case, that through the medium of the paper system, the finances of the country are greatly exposed to the hostile action of foreign governments; and the difficulty of procuring loans to carry on the war, after the present surplus shall have been expended, may be greatly enhanced by the financial movements of other governments. There seems to be a great unanimity on all sides, in the opinion that the war should be pushed vigorously to a close. Indeed, from the nature of our connection with the nations of Europe, every month of war with Mexico creates great hazards of quarrel with the nations of Europe, and the hazards are to be avoided only by a prompt termination of the war at the South. This involves a great and prompt expenditure of money. The total army of the United States, according to the war report, is as follows:

| | |
|---|---|
| Officers, general staff, &c.,..... | 558 |
| Dragoons, two regiments,..... | 1,205 |
| Artillery, four " ..... | 2,303 |
| Infantry, eight " ..... | 3,371 |
| Unattached,..... | 427 |
| Total sabres and bayonets,..... | 8,349 |

Of this small force, more than one-half is on the Rio Grande, and the peace expenditure of the last year is indicated in the following quarterly table of the revenue and expenditures of the federal government:

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE OF THE UNITED STATES.

| | 1845. | | | | 1846. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Quarter ending March 31st. | Quarter ending June 30th. | Quarter ending Sept. 30th. | Quarter ending Dec. 31st. | Quar'r ending March 31st. |
| *Revenue.* | | | | | |
| Customs,..... | $6,375,575 | $6,201,390 | $8,861,932 | $4,137,200 | $7,360,000 |
| Lands,..... | 485,533 | 517,858 | 484,269 | 830,000 | 437,225 |
| Mines,..... | 20,000 | 43,934 | 17,718 | 31,500 | 11,645 |
| Total,..... | $6,881,108 | $6,762,182 | $9,363,919 | $4,998,700 | $7,808,870 |
| *Expenditure.* | | | | | |
| Civil,..... | $1,708,408 | $1,237,604 | $1,792,173 | $1,984,000 | $1,401,632 |
| Army,..... | 1,131,826 | 1,383,735 | 1,352,859 | 1,324,086 | 899,512 |
| Indian,..... | 52,930 | 242,795 | 1,239,479 | 111,582 | 66,888 |
| Fortifications,..... | 86,412 | 160,574 | 663,669 | 193,489 | 433,094 |
| Pensions,..... | 1,406,199 | 13,936 | 956,223 | 25,237 | 556,363 |
| Navy,..... | 1,578,631 | 1,073,902 | 2,331,360 | 1,541,051 | 1,056,744 |
| Interest,..... | 38,063 | 470,093 | 6,575 | 435,054 | 660 |
| Debt,..... | 6,153,735 | 390,457 | 121,055 | 89,312 | 69,072 |
| Total,..... | $12,126,204 | $4,973,065 | $8,463,092 | $5,703,860 | $4,483,897 |

The expenditure of this army of eight thousand men, on a peace establishment, has been at the rate of one million and a quarter for three months. Should, therefore, the executive call out half the number of men authorized by the act of Congress, the whole appropriation for their service must be required in the next three months, more particularly that the clothes, bounty, transportation, &c., is to be paid for in money at the scene of action. In ordinary cases, when the army is supplied by contract, the payments take place all over the Union, where the goods may have been supplied. In the present case, the volunteers furnish their own clothes, and get the money for them, which they will naturally want in specie. Paper is not of much value in a camp. In addition to this large outlay, the marine preparations should involve, at least, an equal expenditure, which will involve more than the deposits now on hand, and make requisite a new loan. This loan, in common prudence, ought immediately to be authorized, and negotiated before the progress of events makes it a matter of extreme difficulty. The issue of treasury-notes will, in all probability, be resorted to. From all these causes, it may be reasonable to anticipate an extraordinary pressure, when, apart from political events, the elements of an abundance of money are in action. The circulation of credits has, however, already sustained a severe check, and the difficulty of realizing outstanding obligations, is daily becoming greater. It is, probably, in reference to this state of affairs, that Anglo-American houses have become more chary of their credits. The insurance companies of the Atlantic cities inserted in their policies a clause excepting the risk of capture by an enemy's force, on southern voyages. This clause is omitted on the payment of 3 per cent addition to the ordinary premium. Many of the outward bound vessels have armed themselves, instead of paying this war premium. As the force against which they will have to contend in a purely Mexican war, must be small vessels, a moderate armament may, in most cases, suffice. The privateering under the Mexican flag can, however, scarcely amount to any very serious matter, inasmuch as that, from the location of Mexico, and its small marine, it can have no ports for fitting out letters of marque, or carrying in prizes; and existing treaties, with Great Britain, Spain, Colombia, Central America, and Brazil, not only shut her belligerent vessels out of all the West India Islands and the South American coast, but make it *piracy* for the subjects of those countries to engage under the Mexican flag to depredate upon the United States' commerce. In the abstract, the citizens of those countries have the right to enter into the service of other nations if they please; but when, by international law, as expressed in treaties, such service is declared to be piracy, the infamy and risk is greatly enhanced. The small vessels authorized by the law to be chartered, armed and equipped, will suffice to keep all bona fide Mexicans within their own harbors. The supposed risks of the southern voyage have, however, already enhanced the cost of transport in that direction, and this has caused a small advance in the price of provisions, the supply of which, via New Orleans, is large. The comparative quantities of leading articles of produce sent from New Orleans to the northern cities, from September 1st to May 9th, are as follows:

EXPORTS FROM NEW ORLEANS, SEPTEMBER TO MAY.

| | 1845. | | | 1846. | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | N. York. | Boston. | Philadelphia. | N. York. | Boston. | Philad'a. |
| Flour,.....bbls. | 69,550 | 72,804 | 3,238 | 71,962 | 97,151 | 250 |
| Pork,.....bbls. | 54,252 | 73,124 | 17,242 | 75,850 | 73,127 | 29,272 |
| Bacon,.....hhds. | 111,538 | 727 | 820 | 2,393 | 450 | 1,058 |
| Lard,.....kegs, | 113,302 | 122,654 | 38,470 | 166,569 | 163,013 | 67,508 |
| Beef,.....bbls. | 5,505 | 5,746 | 874 | 4,340 | 2,583 | ..... |
| Lead, .....pigs, | 218,951 | 91,434 | 59,683 | 196,984 | 72,933 | 26,118 |
| Corn,.....sacks, | 6,718 | 18,293 | 1,050 | 80,603 | 143,449 | 2,471 |

The exports of these articles have been larger this year than last, particularly in shelled corn, of which New York and Boston have taken 224,052 bushels this year, against 25,011 bushels last year. This increase has been the consequence of the English de-

mand for that wholesome article of food, to supply the deficit in the potato crop of Ireland. The true channel of the transport of this produce is down the lakes and northern canals; and the difficulties in the gulf may have the tendency of driving it that way to a greater extent, during the summer months. The receipts of produce at New Orleans, down the river, are unusually large; and, at such a juncture, the withdrawal of northern credits, the advance of freights consequent upon gulf risks, and the difficulty of negotiating exchange, have caused a great accumulation of stocks at New Orleans. This interruption to the course of business is very serious in its nature. The western produce sent down to New Orleans, is, for the most part, destined to make good the purchasers of goods at New York and the East, on western account. The sudden stagnation of the business by which that produce changes hands, paralyzes the whole movement of the circle of credit. Money, at that point, has also become very scarce, and an extensive failure has taken place in a banking-house, while exchange has fallen to a point that indicates a demand for specie on the North; New York and Boston 60 day bills being 3 per cent discount, while checks are ½ premium. As an indication of the extent to which produce flows down the Mississippi, we compile the following table of the leading receipts at that place, from September 1st to May 10th:

RECEIPTS OF PRODUCE AT NEW ORLEANS.

| | 1845. | 1846. | Increase. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Bacon,.....lbs. | 277,500 | 383,000 | 105,500 |
| Butter,.....kegs and firkins, | 17,135 | 31,751 | 14,616 |
| Beef,.....bbls. | 28,194 | 31,961 | 3,767 |
| Cotton,.....bales, | 912,369 | 971,725 | 59,356 |
| Corn,.....sacks, | 308,135 | 734,807 | 426,672 |
| Flour,.....bbls. | 426,826 | 673,739 | 246,913 |
| Lard,.....barrels and kegs, | 273,572 | 376,260 | 102,688 |
| Lead,.....pigs, | 436,045 | 416,139 | ..... |
| Pork,.....bbls. | 199,041 | 303,134 | 104,093 |
| " .....lbs. | 9,041,600 | 9,007,553 | 4,992,953 |
| Sugar,.....hhds. | 88,081 | 84,026 | ..... |
| Tobacco,.....hhds. | 39,043 | 38,203 | ..... |
| Wheat,.....barrels and sacks, | 33,825 | 180,009 | 146,184 |

The advancing freights, decreasing credits, and growing scarcity of money at that point, are strangling the business which this swelling volume of produce would naturally create. But for this untoward war fever, the elements of a large and prosperous business were everywhere in action. The English markets were spreading to receive the enhanced supply, and the future held out the promise of large sales at increased prices, swelling the profits of the western farmers, and reacting upon the sea-board in improved sales of produce. The stimulus that was last year imparted to the production of farm produce, through the reduced English tariff, may result in an unusual supply for the present year; and we trust that our relations with England may continue such as to realize the anticipations indulged in. The following is a comparative table of the quantities of produce exported from the United States, and the proportion sent to England direct:

EXPORTS OF DOMESTIC PRODUCE FROM THE UNITED STATES, DISTINGUISHING THE QUANTITY SENT TO GREAT BRITAIN.

| | 1844. | | 1845. | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Exports. | To G. Britain. | Exports. | To G. Britain. |
| Fish dried,.....quintals, | 271,610 | ..... | 288,380 | ..... |
| Oil sperm,..... galls. | 451,317 | 295,861 | 1,054,301 | 902,597 |
| Oil whale,..... galls. | 4,104,504 | 345,656 | 4,505,662 | 184,898 |
| Whalebone,.....lbs. | 1,149,607 | 96,711 | 2,084,019 | 335,043 |
| Candles sperm,.....lbs. | 606,454 | 3,256 | 812,879 | 94,859 |
| " tallow,..... " | 3,086,566 | 13,100 | 3,490,736 | 32,130 |
| Staves,.....M. | 23,246 | 85 | 21,264 | 331 |

EXPORTS OF DOMESTIC PRODUCE, ETC.—CONTINUED.

| | 1844. | | 1845. | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Exports. | To G. Britain. | Exports. | To G. Brit. |
| Tar and pitch,.....bbls. | 62,477 | 28,371 | 58,002 | 23,809 |
| Turpentine and rosin,.. " | 362,668 | 241,946 | 347,683 | 256,454 |
| Ashes,.....tons, | 18,271 | 1,305 | 24,219 | 1,549 |
| Beef salted,.....bbls. | 106,474 | 43,117 | 101,538 | 41,188 |
| Tallow,.....lbs. | 9,915,366 | 4,657,200 | 10,022,504 | 5,239,440 |
| Pork salted,.....bbls. | 161,629 | 10,280 | 161,609 | 14,140 |
| Hams.....lbs. | 3,886,976 | 340,189 | 2,719,360 | 96,907 |
| Lard,..... " | 25,746,355 | 8,976,815 | 20,060,993 | 5,678,675 |
| Butter,..... " | 3,251,952 | 521,829 | 3,587,489 | 530,529 |
| Cheese,..... " | 7,343,145 | 5,278,965 | 7,941,187 | 5,934,202 |
| Sheep,.....No. | 12,980 | ..... | 6,464 | ..... |
| Wheat,..... .....bushels, | 558,917 | 22,238 | 389,716 | 2,010 |
| Flour,.....bbls. | 1,438,574 | 167,296 | 1,195,230 | 35,355 |
| Corn,.....bushels, | 825,282 | 89,073 | 840,184 | 134,898 |
| Corn-meal,.....bbls. | 247,882 | 29 | 269,030 | ..... |
| Bread, ship,..... " | 117,781 | 630 | 117,529 | 1,451 |
| Potatoes,.....bushels, | 183,232 | 52 | 274,216 | ..... |
| Apples,.....bbls. | 22,324 | 6,803 | 54,022 | 10,230 |
| Rice,.....tierces, | 134,715 | 16,125 | 118,621 | 18,127 |
| Cotton,.....lbs. | 663,633,455 | 486,729,222 | 872,905,996 | 505,144,786 |
| Tobacco,.....hhds. | 163,042 | 39,132 | 147,168 | 26,169 |
| Hops,.....lbs. | 664,663 | ..... | 902,072 | 68,894 |
| Wax,..... " | 963,031 | ..... | 814,499 | 129,742 |
| Spirits,.....galls. | 215,719 | 30 | 277,514 | ..... |
| Molasses,..... " | 881,325 | ..... | ..... | ..... |
| Soap,.....lbs. | 4,732,751 | 1,473 | 4,138,313 | 6,200 |
| Tobacco manufac'd,..... " | 6,066,878 | 438,203 | 5,312,971 | 930,461 |
| Lead,..... " | 18,420,407 | 3,253,181 | 10,188,024 | 811,445 |
| Nails,..... " | 2,945,634 | 3,000 | 1,353,967 | ..... |
| Sugar refined,..... " | 1,671,107 | ..... | 1,997,992 | ..... |
| Gunpowder,..... " | 1,227,654 | ..... | 1,125,209 | ..... |
| Salt,.....bushels, | 157,529 | ..... | 131,500 | ..... |
| Leather,.....lbs. | 591,951 | 21,574 | 1,122,902 | 174,113 |
| Cotton goods,.....$ | 2,898,780 | 4,974 | 4,321,927 | ..... |

This table exhibits the importance of the English market, even under her present restrictions, to the United States. The English demand for no one of these articles could be dispensed with without materially affecting the price of the whole production in the Union. Cotton, particularly, would affect all others. If the English demand for it, by reason of hostile movements, was materially diminished, the price of the whole crop would be so lessened as to destroy the ability of that section of the country to make its usual purchases of goods, and the industry of the whole country would be very unfavorably affected.

The last advices from England indicate a great change for the better in money matters. The government measures in relation to the railroad deposits are such, as to relieve the anxiety of the banking-houses and brokers, and their increasing liberality had sensibly affected the price of money, and an increased disposition to buy produce was the result. Thus far, on this side of the water, provisions have fallen considerably in price; the current of credits is stopped, and a disposition exists to send money to England. Prudential considerations are taking the place of enterprise.

# COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

## TREATY OF COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION BETWEEN THE UNITED STATES AND THE KINGDOM OF THE TWO SICILIES.

The following is a correct copy of the "Treaty of Commerce and Navigation between the United States of America and the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies," concluded at Naples, the 1st of December, 1845, and lately ratified by the President of the United States by and with the advice and consent of the Senate. The ratifications were to be exchanged on or before the 1st of June, 1846, and by its 19th article, the treaty is to be in force from the day of its conclusion:

The United States of America, and his Majesty the King of the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies, equally animated with the desire of maintaining the relations of good understanding which have hitherto so happily subsisted between their respective states, and the consolidating the commercial intercourse between them, have agreed to enter into negotiations for the conclusion of a Treaty of Commerce and Navigation, for which purpose they have appointed plenipotentiaries; that is to say:

The President of the United States of America, William H. Polk, Charge d'Affaires of the same United States of America to the Court of his Majesty the King of the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies; and his Majesty the King of the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies, D. Guistino Fortunato, Knight Grand Cross of the Royal Military Constantinian Order of St. George, and of Francis the 1st, Minister Secretary of State of his said Majesty; D. Michael Gravina and Requesenz, Prince of Comitini, Knight Grand Cross of the Royal Order of Francis the 1st, Gentleman of the Chamber in waiting, and Minister Secretary of State of his said Majesty; and D. Antonio Spinelli, of Scalea, Commander of the Royal Order of Francis the 1st, Gentleman of the Chamber of his said Majesty, Member of the General Consulata, and Superintendent General of the Archives of the Kingdom; who, after having exchanged their full powers, found in good and due form, have concluded and signed the following articles:

ARTICLE I. There shall be reciprocal liberty of commerce and navigation between the United States of America and the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies.

No duty of customs, or other impost, shall be charged upon any goods the produce or manufacture of one country, upon importation by sea or by land from such country into the other, other or higher than the duty or impost charged upon goods of the same kind, the produce or manufacture of, or imported from, any other country; and the United States of America and his Majesty the King of the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies do hereby engage that the subjects or citizens of any other state shall not enjoy any favor, privilege, or immunity, whatever, in matters of commerce and navigation, which shall not also, and at the same time, be extended to the subjects or citizens of the other high contracting party, gratuitously if the concession in favor of that other state shall have been gratuitous, and in return for a compensation as nearly as possible of proportionate value and effect, to be adjusted by mutual agreement, if the concessions shall have been conditional.

ARTICLE II. All articles of the produce or manufacture of either country, and of their respective states, which can legally be imported into either country from the other, in ships of that other country, and thence coming, shall, when so imported, be subject to the same duties, and enjoy the same privileges, whether imported in ships of the one country, or in ships of the other: and in like manner, all goods which can legally be exported or re-exported from either country to the other, in ships of that other country, shall, when so exported or re-exported, be subject to the same duties, and be entitled to the same privileges, drawbacks, bounties and allowances, whether exported in ships of the one country, or in ships of the other.

ARTICLE III. No duties of tonnage, harbor, light-houses, pilotage, quarantine, or other similar duties, of whatever nature, or under whatever denomination, shall be imposed in either country, upon the vessels of the other, in respect of voyages between the United States of America and the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies, if laden, or in respect of any voyage, if in ballast, which shall not be equally imposed, in like cases, upon national vessels.

ARTICLE IV. It is hereby declared that the stipulations of the present treaty are not to be understood as applying to the navigation and carrying trade between one port and another situated in the states of either contracting party, such navigation and trade being reserved exclusively to national vessels. Vessels of either country shall, however, be per-

mitted to load or unload the whole or part of their cargoes at one or more ports in the states of either of the high contracting parties, and then to proceed to complete the said loading or unloading to any other port or ports in the same states.

ARTICLE V. Neither of the two governments, nor any corporation or agent acting in behalf or under the authority of either government, shall, in the purchase of any article which, being the growth, produce, or manufacture of the one country, shall be imported into the other, give, directly or indirectly, any priority or preference on account of, or in reference to, the national character of the vessel in which such article shall have been imported; it being the true intent and meaning of the high contracting parties that no distinction or difference whatever shall be made in this respect.

ARTICLE VI. The high contracting parties engage, in regard to the personal privileges that the citizens of the United States of America shall enjoy in the dominions of his Majesty the King of the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies, and the subjects of his said Majesty in the United States of America, that they shall have free and undoubted right to travel and to reside in the states of the two high contracting parties, subject to the same precautions of police which are practised towards the subjects or citizens of the most favored nations.

They shall be entitled to occupy dwellings and warehouses, and to dispose of their personal property of every kind and description, by sale, gift, exchange, will, or in any other way whatever, without the smallest hindrance or obstacle; and their heirs or representatives, being subjects or citizens of the other high contracting party, shall succeed to their personal goods, whether by testament or *ab intestato*, and may take possession thereof, either by themselves or by others acting for them, and dispose of the same at will, paying to the profit of the respective governments such dues only as the inhabitants of the country wherein the said goods are, shall be subject to pay in like cases. And in case of the absence of the heir and representative, such care shall be taken of the said goods as would be taken of the goods of a native of the same country in like case, until the lawful owner may take measures for receiving them. And if a question should arise among several claimants, as to which of them said goods belong, the same shall be decided finally by the laws and judges of the land where such goods are.

They shall not be obliged to pay, under any pretence whatever, any taxes or impositions, other or greater than those which are paid or may hereafter be paid, by the subjects or citizens of the most favored nations, in the respective states of the high contracting parties.

They shall be exempt from all military service, whether by land or by sea; from forced loans, and from every extraordinary contribution not general, and by law established. Their dwellings, warehouses, and all premises appertaining thereto, destined for purposes of commerce or residence, shall be respected. No arbitrary search of, or visit to, their houses, and no arbitrary examination or inspection whatever of the books, papers, or accounts of their trade, shall be made; but such measures shall be executed only in conformity with the legal sentence of a competent tribunal; and each of the two high contracting parties engages that the citizens or subjects of the other, residing in their respective states, shall enjoy their property and personal security in as full and ample manner as their own citizens or subjects, or the subjects or citizens of the most favored nations.

ARTICLE VII. The citizens and the subjects of the two high contracting parties shall be free in the states of the other, to manage their own affairs themselves, or to commit those affairs to the management of any persons whom they may appoint as their broker, factor, or agent; nor shall the citizens and subjects of the two high contracting parties be restrained in their choice of persons to act in such capacities, nor shall they be called upon to pay any salary or remuneration to any person whom they shall not choose to employ.

Absolute freedom shall be given in all cases to the buyer and seller to bargain together, and to fix the price of any goods or merchandise imported into, or to be exported from, the states and dominions of the two high contracting parties; save and except generally such cases wherein the laws and usages of the country may require the intervention of any special agents in the states and dominions of the high contracting parties.

ARTICLE VIII. Each of the two high contracting parties may have, in the ports of the other, consuls, vice-consuls, and commercial agents, of their own appointment, who shall enjoy the same privileges and powers of those of the most favored nations; but if any such consuls shall exercise commerce, they shall be submitted to the same laws and usages to which private individuals of their nation are submitted in the same place.

The said consuls, vice-consuls, and commercial agents, are authorized to require the assistance of the local authorities for the search, arrest, detention, and imprisonment of the deserters from the ships of war and merchant vessels of their country. For this purpose, they shall apply to the competent tribunals, judges and officers, and shall in writing demand the said deserters, proving, by the exhibition of the registers of the vessels, the rolls of the crews, or by other official documents, that such individuals formed part of

the crews; and this reclamation being thus substantiated, the surrender shall not be refused.

Such deserters, when arrested, shall be placed at the disposal of the said consuls, vice-consuls, or commercial agents, and may be confined in the public prisons at the request and cost of those who shall claim them, in order to be detained until the time when they shall be restored to the vessels to which they belonged, or sent back to their own country by a vessel of the same nation, or any other vessel whatsoever. But if not sent back within four months from the day of their arrest, or if all the expenses of such imprisonment are not defrayed by the party causing such arrest or imprisonment, they shall be set at liberty, and shall not be again arrested for the same cause.

However, if the deserter should be found to have committed any crime or offence, his surrender may be delayed until the tribunal before which his case shall be depending shall have pronounced its sentence, and such sentence shall have been carried into effect.

ARTICLE IX. If any ships of war or merchant vessels be wrecked on the coasts of the states of either of the high contracting parties, such ships or vessels, or any parts thereof, and all furniture and appurtenances belonging thereunto, and all goods and merchandise which shall be saved therefrom, or the produce thereof, if sold, shall be faithfully restored, with the least possible delay to the proprietors, upon being claimed by them, or by their duly authorized factors; and if there are no such proprietors or factors on the spot, then the said goods and merchandise, or the proceeds thereof, as well as all the papers found on board such wrecked ships or vessels, shall be delivered to the American or Sicilian consul or vice-consul in whose district the wreck may have taken place; and such consul, vice-consul, proprietors or factors, shall pay only the expenses incurred in the preservation of the property, together with the rate of salvage and expenses of quarantine which would have been payable in the like case of a wreck of a national vessel; and the goods and merchandise saved from the wreck shall not be subject to duties, unless cleared for consumption; it being understood that in case of any legal claim upon such wreck, goods or merchandise, the same shall be referred for decision to the competent tribunals of the country.

ARTICLE X. The merchant vessels of each of the two high contracting parties which may be forced by stress of weather or other cause into one of the ports of the other, shall be exempt from all duty of port or navigation paid for the benefit of the state, if the motives which led to take refuge be real and evident, and if no operation of commerce be done by loading or unloading merchandises; well understood, however, that the loading or unloading, which may regard the subsistence of the crew, or necessary for the reparation of the vessel, shall not be considered operations of commerce which lead to the payment of duties, and that the said vessels do not stay in port beyond the time necessary, keeping in view the cause which led to taking refuge.

ARTICLE XI. To carry always more fully into effect the intentions of the two high contracting parties, they agree that every difference of duty, whether of 10 per cent or other, established in the respective states, to the prejudice of the navigation and commerce of those nations which have not treaties of commerce and navigation with them, shall cease and remain abolished in conformity with the principle established in the first article of the present treaty, as well on the productions of the soil and industry of the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies, which therefrom shall be imported in the United States of America, whether in vessels of the one or of the other country, as on those which in like manner shall be imported in the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies in vessels of both countries.

They declare, besides, that as the productions of the soil and industry of the two countries, on their introduction in the ports of the other, shall not be subject to greater duties than those which shall be imposed on the like productions of the most favored nations, so that the red and white wines of the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies, of every kind, including those of Marsala, which may be imported directly into the United States of America, whether in vessels of the one or of the other country, shall not pay higher or greater duties than those of the red or white wines of the most favored nations. And in like manner, the cottons of the United States of America, which may be imported directly in the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies, whether in vessels of the one or other nation, shall not pay higher or greater duties than the cottons of Egypt, Bengal, or those of the most favored nations.

ARTICLE XII. The present treaty shall be in force from this day, and for the term of ten years, and further, until the end of twelve months after either of the high contracting parties shall have given notice to the other of its intention to terminate the same, each of the said high contracting parties reserving to itself the right of giving such notice at the end of said term of ten years, or at any subsequent term.

ARTICLE XIII. The present treaty shall be approved and ratified by the President of the United States of America, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate of the

said States, and by his Majesty the King of the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies, and the ratifications shall be exchanged at Naples at the expiration of six months from the date of its signatures, or sooner, if possible.

In witness whereof, the respective plenipotentiaries have signed the same, and have affixed thereto the seals of their arms.

Done at Naples, the first of December, in the year one thousand eight hundred and forty-five.

| | |
|---|---|
| William H. Polk, | [L. s.] |
| Giustino Fortunato, | [L. s.] |
| Principe di Cassitini, | [L. s.] |
| Antonio Spinelli, | [L. s.] |

## COMMERCIAL TREATY BETWEEN THE UNITED STATES AND BELGIUM.

The Senate of the United States advised and consented, on the 26th of March, 1846, to the ratification of the following Treaty of Commerce and Navigation between the United States of America and His Majesty the King of the Belgians.

The United States of America, on the one part, and his Majesty the King of the Belgians, on the other part, wishing to regulate in a formal manner their reciprocal relations of commerce and navigation, and further to strengthen, through the development of their interests respectively, the bonds of friendship and good understanding so happily established between the governments and people of the two countries, and desiring, with this view, to conclude, by common agreement, a treaty establishing conditions equally advantageous to the commerce and navigation of both States, have, to that effect, appointed as their Plenipotentiaries—namely: the President of the United States, Thomas G. Clemson, Charge d'Affaires of the United States of America to his Majesty the King of the Belgians; and his Majesty the King of the Belgians, M. Adolphe Dechamps, officer of the order of Leopold, Knight of the Order of the Red Eagle of the first class, Grand Cross of the Order of Saint Michael of Bavaria, his Minister for Foreign Affairs, a member of the Chamber of Representants—who, after having communicated to each other their full powers, ascertained to be in good and proper form, have agreed to and concluded the following articles:

Art. I. There shall be full and entire freedom of commerce and navigation between the inhabitants of the two countries; and the same security and protection which is enjoyed by the citizens or subjects of each country shall be guarantied on both sides. The said inhabitants, whether established or temporarily residing within any ports, cities, or places whatever, of the two countries, shall not, on account of their commerce or industry, pay any other or higher duties, taxes, or imposts, than those which shall be levied on citizens or subjects of the country in which they may be; and the privileges, immunities, and other favors, with regard to commerce or industry, enjoyed by the citizens or subjects of one of the two States, shall be common to those of the other.

Art. II. Belgian vessels, whether coming from a Belgian or a foreign port, shall not pay, either on entering or leaving the ports of the United States, whatever may be their destination, any other or higher duties of tonnage, pilotage, anchorage, buoys, light-houses, clearance, brokerage, or generally other charges whatsoever, than are required from vessels of the United States in similar cases. This provision extends not only to duties levied for the benefit of the State, but also to those levied for the benefit of provinces, cities, countries, districts, townships, corporations, or any other divisions or jurisdictions, whatever be its designation.

Art. III. Reciprocally, vessels of the United States, whether coming from a port of said United States or from a foreign port, shall not pay, either on entering or leaving the ports of Belgium, whatever may be their destination, any other or higher duties of tonnage, pilotage, anchorage, buoys, light-houses, clearance, brokerage, or generally other charges whatever, than are required from Belgian vessels in similar cases. This provision extends not only to duties levied for the benefit of the State, but also to those levied for the benefit of provinces, cities, countries, districts, townships, corporations, or any other division or jurisdiction, whatever be its designation.

Art. IV. The restitution by Belgium of the duty levied by the government of the Netherlands on the navigation of the Scheldt, in virtue of the third paragraph of the ninth article of the treaty of April nineteenth, eighteen hundred and thirty-nine, is guarantied to the vessels of the United States.

Art. V. Steam vessels of the United States and of Belgium, engaged in regular navi-

gation between the United States and Belgium, shall be exempt in both countries from the payment of duties of tonnage, anchorage, buoys and light-houses.

ART. VI. As regards the coasting trade between the ports of either country, the vessels of the two nations shall be treated, on both sides, on the same footing with vessels of the most favored nation.

ART. VII. Articles of every description, whether proceeding from the soil industry, or warehouses of Belgium, directly imported therefrom into the ports of the United States in Belgian vessels, shall pay no other or higher duties of import than if they were imported under the flag of said States.

And reciprocally, articles of every description directly imported into Belgium from the United States, under the flag of the said States, shall pay no other or higher duties than if they were imported under the Belgian flag.

It is well understood:

1. That the goods shall have been really put on board in the ports from which they are declared respectively to come.

2. That a putting in at an intermediate port, produced by uncontrollable circumstances duly proved, does not occasion the forfeiture of the advantage allowed to direct importation.

ART. VIII. Articles of every description imported into the United States from other countries than Belgium, under the Belgian flag, shall pay no other or higher duties whatsoever than if they had been imported under the flag of the most favored foreign nation, other than the flag of the country from which the importation is made.

And reciprocally, articles of every description imported under the flag of the United States into Belgium from other countries than the United States, shall pay no other or higher duties whatsoever than if they had been imported under the flag of the foreign nation most favored, other than that of the country from which the importation is made.

ART. IX. Articles of every description exported by Belgian vessels, or by those of the United States of America, from the ports of either country to any country whatsoever, shall be subjected to no other duties or formalities than such as are required for exportation under the flag of the country where the shipment is made.

ART. X. All premiums, drawbacks, or other favors of like nature which may be allowed in the States of either of the contracting parties upon goods imported or exported in national vessels, shall be likewise and in the same manner allowed upon goods imported directly from one of the two countries by its vessels into the other, or exported from one of the two countries by the vessels of the other, to any destination whatsoever.

ART. XI. The preceding article is, however, not to apply to the importation of salt, and of the produce of the national fisheries; each of the two parties reserving to itself the faculty of granting special privileges for the importation of those articles under its own flag.

ART. XII. The high contracting parties agree to consider and to treat as Belgian vessels and as vessels of the United States all those which, being provided by the competent authority with a passport, sea letter, or any other sufficient document, shall be recognized conformably with existing laws as national vessels in the country to which they respectively belong.

ART. XIII. Belgian vessels and those of the United States may, conformably with the laws of the two countries, retain on board, in the ports of both, such parts of their cargoes as may be destined for a foreign country; and such parts shall not be subjected, either while they remain on board, or upon re-exportation, to any charges whatsoever, other than those for the prevention of smuggling.

ART. XIV. During the period allowed by the laws of the two countries respectively for the warehousing of goods, no duties other than those of watch and storage, shall be levied upon articles brought from either country into the other while awaiting transmit, re-exportation, or entry for consumption.

Such goods shall in no case be subject to higher warehouse charges, or the other formalities, than if they had been imported under the flag of the country.

ART. XV. In all that relates to duties of customs and navigation, the two high contracting parties promise reciprocally not to grant any favor, privilege, or immunity to any other State which shall not instantly become common to the citizens and subjects of both parties respectively; gratuitously, if the concession or favor to such other State is gratuitous, and on allowing the same compensation or its equivalent, if the concession is conditional.

Neither of the contracting parties shall lay upon goods proceeding from the soil or the industry of the other party, which may be imported into its ports, any other or higher duties of importation or re-exportation than are laid upon the importation or re-exportation of similar goods coming from any other foreign country.

ART. XVI. In cases of shipwreck, damages at sea, or forced putting in, each party shall

afford to the vessels of the other, whether belonging to the State or to individuals, the same assistance and protection, and the same immunities which would have been granted to its own vessels in similar cases.

ART. XVII. It is moreover agreed between the two contracting parties, that the Consuls and Vice-Consuls of the United States in the ports of Belgium, and, reciprocally, the Consuls and Vice-Consuls of Belgium in the ports of the United States, shall continue to enjoy all the privileges, protection, and assistance usually granted to them, and which may be necessary for the proper discharge of their functions. The said Consuls and Vice-Consuls may cause to be arrested and sent back, either to their vessels or to their country, such seamen as may have deserted from the vessels of their nation. To this end they shall apply in writing to the competent local authorities, and they shall prove, by exhibition of the vessel's crew list or other document, or, if she have departed, by copy of said documents, duly certified by them, that the seamen whom they claim formed part of the said crew. Upon such demand, thus supported, the delivery of the deserters shall not be refused. They shall, moreover, receive all aid and assistance in searching for, seizing, and arresting such deserters; who shall, upon the requisition and at the expense of the Consul or Vice-Consul, be confined and kept in the prisons of the country until he shall have found an opportunity for sending them home. If, however, such an opportunity should not occur within three months after the arrest, the deserters shall be set at liberty, and shall not again be arrested for the same cause. It is, however, understood that seamen of the country in which the desertion shall occur, are excepted from these provisions, unless they be naturalized citizens or subjects of the other country.

ART. XVIII. Articles of all kinds, the transit of which is allowed in Belgium, coming from or going to the United States, shall be exempt from all transit duty in Belgium, when the transportation through the Belgian territory is effected on the railroads of the State.

ART. XIX. The present treaty shall be in force during ten years from the date of the exchange of the ratifications, and until the expiration of twelve months after either of the high contracting parties shall have announced to the other its intention to terminate the operation thereof; each party reserving to itself the right of making such declaration to the other at the end of the ten years above mentioned; and it is agreed that, after the expiration of the twelve months of prolongation accorded on both sides, this treaty and all its stipulations shall cease to be in force.

ART. XX. This treaty shall be ratified, and the ratification shall be exchanged at Washington within the term of six months after its date, or sooner if possible; and the treaty shall be put in execution within the term of twelve months.

In faith whereof, the respective plenipotentiaries have signed the present treaty in duplicate, and have affixed thereto their seals. Brussels, the tenth of November, one thousand eight hundred and forty-five.

THOM. G. CLEMSON, [L. S.]
A. DE CHAMPS, [L. S.]

## DUTIES ON GOODS SOLD AT AUCTION IN NEW YORK.

The following is a correct copy of "An Act in relation to Duties on Goods sold at public auction, and to the Bonds of Auctioneers," passed April 11th, 1846, by "the people of the state of New York, represented in the Senate and Assembly," and signed by the governor of the state.

Sec. 1. All goods, wares, and merchandise, and every other species of personal property, which shall at any time be exposed to sale by public auction within this state, with the exceptions mentioned in the second section of this act, and in the fifth section of title one, chapter seventeen, part one of the Revised Statutes, shall be subject, each and every time they shall be struck off, to duties at the following rates, namely:

1. All wines and ardent spirits, foreign or domestic, at the rate of one dollar on every one hundred dollars.

2. All goods, wares, merchandise, and effects imported from any place beyond the Cape of Good Hope, at the rate of fifty cents on every one hundred dollars.

3. All other goods, wares, merchandise, and effects, which are the production of any foreign country, at the rate of seventy-five cents on every one hundred dollars.

The duties shall be calculated on the sums for which the goods so exposed to sale shall be respectively struck off, and shall in all cases be paid by the person making the sale.

Sec. 2. No auction duties shall be payable upon the following goods and articles:

1. Ships and vessels.

2. Utensils of husbandry, horses, neat cattle, hogs, and sheep.

3. Articles of the growth, produce, and manufacture of the United States, except distilled spirits.

Sec. 3. The account required by law from every auctioneer, shall hereafter be rendered semi-annually, on the first Mondays of July and January in each year.

Sec. 4. The bond required by law from every auctioneer shall be renewed on or before the first Monday in January in each and every year.

Sec. 5. Every auctioneer in the city of New York shall, within ten days after the bond required by law shall have been executed, and the certificate required by law endorsed thereon, file a copy thereof, and also a copy of said certificate, certified by the officer taking the bond, with the clerk of the city and county of New York.

Sec. 6. The clerk of the city and county of New York shall keep a book or books, with an index alphabetically arranged, in which he shall cause to be recorded every bond so filed, for which he shall be entitled to a fee of fifty cents for every bond so filed, to be paid by the party executing such bond.

Sec. 7. Every auctioneer neglecting to file such certified copy within the time required by law, shall forfeit for every such neglect the sum of one hundred dollars, such penalty to be sued for and recovered by the district attorney, and when recovered, to be paid into the treasury of the state.

Sec. 8. Any person who shall act as auctioneer in selling any goods liable to auction duties, without filing the bonds required by law, or who shall neglect to make or render the accounts, or to pay over the duties required by law, shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and punished by imprisonment, not exceeding one year, or by fine, not exceeding one thousand dollars, or by both such fine and imprisonment.

Sec. 9. To entitle any goods, wares, or merchandise, or other property sold at auction in the city and county of New York, afer the passage of this act, to an exemption from the payment of auction duties to the state, as goods damaged at sea upon the voyage of importation, the auctioneer shall be furnished before sale with a proper certificate from the board of port wardens of the port of New York, that such goods were examined by a member of that board, at the proper time and in the proper manner, and that they were damaged at sea upon the voyage of importation, so as in the opinion of said board of wardens to be entitled to be sold at auction as damaged goods, and be exempt from the payment of auction duties; and also with a statement, upon oath of the president or secretary of the Marine Insurance Company in the city and county of New York, in which said goods shall have been insured, in case any insurance shall have been effected on said goods, stating the fact of insurance of the goods in such company, and the amount insured thereon, which said certificate shall be by the said auctioneer exhibited publicly at the said sale, upon the demand of any port-warden, or any other person interested in the said goods, or in the sale thereof; and without such certificates duly furnished to the auctioneer employed to sell the same, all such goods shall, from and after the passage of this act, be charged with the same auction duties as like goods are subject to which are not damaged or claimed to be so.

Sec. 10. Sections first and fourth of title first, chapter seventeenth, part first of the Revised Statutes, and all acts or parts of acts inconsistent with the provisions of this act, are hereby repealed.

Sec. 11.—This act shall take effect immediately.

## COMMERCIAL DECREE OF THE GOVERNMENT OF PERU,

### IN REGARD TO WHALING AND SEALING SHIPS.

The Department of State, (Washington, April 23d, 1846,) has received from the United States Consul at Payta, the following decree of the Government of Peru, which is of great importance to our whaling vessels in the Pacific.

"I, Ramon Castilla, president of the republic, considering—

"1. That the residents at Tumbes are deprived of the advantages which they derived from the presence of the whaling and sealing vessels at that place; and

"2. That the government is bound to promote by every means in its power the welfare and advancement of all the places in the republic; having obtained the assent of the Council of State, do decree:—

"Article 1.—Foreign, or national whaling or sealing vessels, may enter the harbor of Tumbes, on payment of the simple duty of ten dollars as anchorage, free from all duties of port, captaincy, roll, and health.

"2.—The captain of any whaling or sealing vessel may introduce, free of duty, into Tumbes, the quantity of oil which he may wish to sell in order to obtain the provisions and supplies required.

"Art. 3.—The captain, agent, or consignee, of any whaling or sealing vessel shall present the manifest on clear paper, as well as the order for her clearance.

"Art. 4.—The captain of the port of Tumbes shall, of his own authority alone, issue the license to depart, to whaling or sealing vessels, whether national or foreign.

"Art. 5.—Whaling or sealing vessels remain subject, in cases of clandestine introduction of merchandise, even of oil, to the penalties declared in the commercial regulation which they infringe.

"The minister of state of the treasury is charged with the execution of this decree.

"Given at the palace of the supreme government, at Lima, on the 3d of January, 1846.

"Ramon Castilla, Manuel del Rio."

# NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

## SEA-MARKS IN THE SOUND, GROUNDS, AND THE OUTER HARBOR OF COPENHAGEN.

The following translation of notices to mariners, have been received from the Legation of the United States at Copenhagen, at the Department of State, and officially published under date, Department of State, Washington, April 22d, 1846.

"Notice to Mariners.—In conformity with the king's commands, the following sea-marks will, in addition to those specified in the ordinance of the 3d of November, 1840, be laid down in the spring, in the Sound, the Grounds, and the outer harbor of Copenhagen, at the nine places specified below:

"*A.* On the eastern side. Floating buoys, with brooms turned downwards upon white poles:

"1 on the western side of the '*Middleground*,' in 20 feet water.

"1 in front of the '*Saltholensgrund*,' outside the Lusen, in 4 fathoms.

"1 in front of the '*Kraasebank*,' in 4 fathoms.

"*B.* On the western side. Floating buoys with brooms turned upwards upon black poles:

"1 in front of the '*Svalerump*,' in 4 fathoms.

"1 in front of the '*Sundby Hage*,' in 4 fathoms.

"1 in front of the '*Stubberump*,' in 4 fathoms.

"*C.* At different detached points. Floating buoys with balls or round wicker baskets:

"1 at the shallowest point of the '*Knollen*,' in 14 feet water.

"1 northwest of the shallowest point of the '*Kyggen*,' in 4 fathoms; and

"1 at the shallowest point of the '*Middelpulten*,' in 20 feet water.

"The following alterations will be made in the old sea-marks:

"*a.* The northern tun of the '*Middelgrund*' will be replaced by a tun painted *red*, which will be more easily distinguished, and a flag will be placed upon it, instead of the former black tun, without a flag. At the '*Stubben*,' a *black* tun will be fixed instead of the present red tun; and at '*Taarbeb's Reef*,' near the wreck of the ship-of-the-line *Neptune*, a small black tun, with a broom and pole, will be substituted for the floating buoy hitherto in that place.

"The various tuns will be marked with the following numbers, viz:

"The '*Dragoe*' tun will be marked *I*, the '*Castrup*' tun *II*, the *Siider tun III*, the '*Middle*' tun *IV*, the '*Norder*' tun *V*, the tun at the wreck of the ship '*Neptune*' *VI*, the '*Stubbe*' tun *VII*, and the tun at the '*Kronen*' *VIII*.

"*b.* At the wreck of the '*Provesteen*,' two buoys will be placed larger than those now there.

"*c.* At the '*Bredgrunden*' a floating buoy will be placed with a ball or a wicker basket, instead of two brooms, the one turned upwards and the other downwards.

"All these sea-marks will be, generally, laid out and taken in simultaneously with the light-ship in the grounds; but they will not be laid out until it can be done with safety, or until there shall be no reason to fear that the sea-marks may be lost or displaced by the floating ice.

"The buoys at the '*Sandrevotungen*,' '*Suder Ryese*,' and the '*Holmetungen*' shall remain out throughout the year. At the point at which the *Dragoe Sandreos* tun lies, a buoy of the same description as the others on the western side will be placed whenever the former is removed in the autumn.

"All which is published for general information."

## LIGHT-HOUSES OF SWEDEN.

The following translation of a notice to mariners relative to the erection of two light-houses on the coast of Sweden, has been furnished to the Department of State, (Washington, April 22d, 1846,) by the acting Consul General of Sweden and Norway, at New York.

"NOTICE TO MARINERS.—The royal commissioners for the management of the maritime affairs in Sweden, do hereby notify all shipmasters and seafaring persons, for their guidance, that in the course of the present year, the following works are to be performed and carried into effect on the light-houses here below specified—viz:

"1.—The two coal-lights on 'Nidingen,' situated in the Cattegat 57° 19" north latitude, and 39° 6' east longitude from Fewoe, or 11° 56' east longitude from Greenwich, are to be altered and reconstructed into perpendicular lentille-lights of the third class, *a feu fisce*, and the towers to be made considerably higher. This alteration will be commenced in April of this year, and the light is to be continued, pending the performance of the work, and until the new lentille-lights shall be exhibited, by means of the application of a sideral lamp of the larger size, suspended on each of the towers, and opening on the Cattegat. It is presumed that the alteration and reconstruction in question will be completed by the first of October next, when the lentille-lights will be immediately exhibited; but should this (through unforeseen obstacles) not be the case, the provisional lights will be steadily maintained during the ensuing winter, and so until the lentille-lights are fairly under way.

"2.—The erection of a light-house is to be commenced early in the spring ensuing, on the southern point of Gottland, about three thousand Swedish yards from Hoberg's Point, on the mountain known by the name of 'Klefren.' In this light-house will be introduced a revolving reverberating light, or mirror-light.

"Further particulars respecting the time when the above-mentioned lights will be ready and exhibited for service, &c., will hereafter be communicated.

"STOCKHOLM, 2d February, 1846."

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The following translation of a notice to mariners has been received at the Department of State, Washington, from the Legation of the United States at Stockholm, Sweden:

"MARINE DEPARTMENT.—Notice is hereby given that the following light-houses will be altered, or erected, during the present year.

"1.—The two light-houses on the rocky cluster in the Cattegat; *Nidingen*, situated in north latitude 57° 19', and longitude 30° 6', east of Fewoe, or 11° 56' east of Greenwich, are to be altered by giving greater elevation to the towers, and adapting them for a lentille-light, '*feu fisce*' of the third order.

"2.—These alterations will be commenced in April; and during their continuance the light will be maintained by the suspension of a large sideral lamp, shining towards the Cattegat. It is anticipated that the towers will be completed by the 1st of October; but should the progress of the work be retarded by any cause later than that period, the same mode of lighting will be continued during the winter.

"3.—A new light-house (to be mounted with four spires) will be commenced early in the spring, on the southernmost extremity of the island of Gothland,) about 3,000 ells from the point called Hoberg, on the rock Klefren. This new structure will be lighted by a rotary lamp with powerful reflectors.

"More detailed information will be given hereafter, as to the number of revolutions and bearings of the light just mentioned."

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## WRECK OFF YARMOUTH.

Notice is hereby given that a green buoy, with the word "wreck," has been placed just to the eastward of a schooner sunk in the track of shipping abreast of the Victoria Terrace, at Great Yarmouth. The buoy lies in five and a half fathoms at low water spring tides, with the following marks and compass bearings, viz.: The northernmost mill, in line with the centre of Yarmouth workhouse, bearing north; Gorelston Church is t length open to the southward of the second mill at Gorleston, S. W. by W.

# STATISTICS OF POPULATION.

## PROGRESS OF POPULATION IN THE UNITED STATES.

[We copy from the "Farmer's Library and Monthly Journal of Agriculture," for January, 1846, the following article relative to the "Progress of Population in certain regions of the United States," prepared for that Journal, by William Darby, Esq., the well known author of a Universal Gazetteer. We cannot let this opportunity pass, without commending the valuable Journal from which this article is taken, to the attention, not only of those engaged in agricultural pursuits, but to mercantile men, whose interests are so intimately connected with the resources of our noble mother Earth. John S. Skinner, Esq., the editor of the Library and Journal, may be considered as the pioneer in the agricultural literature of the country. He projected, and edited with signal ability for many years the "American Farmer," and is the author of a great number of works on almost every subject connected with his favorite pursuit. We have said that Mr. Skinner was the pioneer in this kind of literature; he does not, however, rest in the practice of the past, but vigilantly collects the facts of all time, and keenly bent on his mission, embraces every discovery in scientific agriculture that is calculated to advance its interests and its growth. To be brief, the periodical of Mr. Skinner stands at the head of our agricultural works, and we are glad to learn that it is appreciated and supported by intelligent farmers and planters in every state of the Union.]

Few persons are aware of the peculiar advantages of the Atlantic Slope of North America. If we extend our views into a not very distant futurity, when the central part of the continent will teem with inhabitants, the Atlantic border will stand as the gateway between the great civilized nations of the Eastern and Western Continents. In some very essential respects, such is the case at present.

As population is the first, the last, and principal consideration on all statistical subjects, I have constructed the enclosed tabular, to serve as comparative data, as regards those parts of the Atlantic border where the facilities of commercial and agricultural, as well as manufacturing prosperity abound, and yet have remained stationary, or retrograde, whilst other parts, in no essential respect differing in natural advantages, have advanced in wealth and power.

It must be obvious that in these views I can have no sectional or other partial bias. My desire is to show, from actual experience, that there must exist either some inherent cause of discontent, or most alluring prospects of gain, to induce the people of the Atlantic border to abandon their place of birth, and cut asunder so many ties, so many domestic associations—and that to an extent not only to prevent increase, but to produce a diminution of physical, intellectual, and moral power. Were we made acquainted with such a fact, founded on official data, in the political history of any monarchical state of Europe, we would at once set it down as a proof of the deteriorating effects of that form of government.

In the case for our consideration, now before us, and applied to a region most favored by every facility to derive benefit from human labor, where nature itself has scooped many of the finest havens of the globe—havens on which cities have already risen, in a comparatively short period, vying with the great marts of Europe and Asia; such a country, also abounding in means of religious, moral and intellectual culture; what are the inducements offered by western or central settlements, to compensate for the sacrifice of so many advantages, already at command, on the Atlantic border? Land! more land! Does any one suppose that the expense of removal and obtaining new residences will not be as great, and the success more precarious as to resulting profit, than the same time, means, and labor, applied to the improvement of soil already possessed?

On such a subject, yourself and readers will pardon the introduction of a moment's allusion to my own experience, and also the confident tone of my remarks. I was removed into the interior when very young, but old enough to remember much consequent hardship felt and witnessed. It is true that many of the difficulties to which emigrants of more than half a century past were exposed, are now removed or greatly mitigated; yet I have no hesitation to say that, as a rule admitting very few exceptions, the first generation of emigrants are worn away with labor and care, and with no small share of regret, before the second can be placed in as happy homes as were left for shadowy hopes. Were the Atlantic border of the United States, like the Pacific border of China, teeming with an overcharged population, relief would be naturally and rationally sought, by removal to a wilderness, or thinly peopled region, with a productive soil and temperate climate, did such offer; but, from spaces where the maximum of distributive population falls far short

of fifty to the square mile, and where two hundred on equal surface could find support, with the enjoyment of every comfort of life, there must exist some great defect in modes of thinking, to superinduce extensive emigration.

In the selection of element for the following comparative tables, I have not included either Maine or New York, as causes peculiar to both these states have influenced their political history. The sections adopted have been comparatively less influenced by external causes than most other parts of the United States, and, as to soil, have in themselves much in common. They have all, in a peculiar degree, the advantages of commercial facilities, but those southward of New York in a much greater extent than those to the northward. The period chosen of thirty years, from 1810 to 1840, was, perhaps, of any portion of time since the English colonies were originally formed in North America, the one best calculated to illustrate the philosophy of our statistical history.

TABLE I.

*Table of the Progressive Population of the Five States named, from* 1810 *to* 1840, *as deduced from the respective Census Returns of those years.*

| States. | Population, 1810. | Population, 1840. | Area in sqr. miles. | Population to the sqr. mile, 1840. | Ratio of increase in 30 years. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Vermont,..... | 217,713 | 291,948 | 10,212 | 28 | 1.34 |
| New Hampshire,.... | 214,360 | 284,574 | 9,280 | 30 | 1.33 |
| Massachusetts,..... | 472,040 | 737,699 | 7,800 | 94 | 1.56 |
| Connecticut,..... | 262,042 | 309,978 | 4,674 | 66 | 1.18 |
| Rhode Island,..... | 77,031 | 108,830 | 1,360 | 80 | 1.4 |
| Amount,..... | 1,243,216 | 1,733,029 | 33,326 | 52 | 1.31 |

TABLE II.

*Table of the Progressive Population of the Lower or Maritime Counties of New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Maryland, and the whole three Counties of Delaware, from* 1810 *to* 1840.

| | Counties. | Population, 1810. | Population, 1840 | Area in square miles. | Population to the sqr. mile, 1840. | Ratio of increase in 30 years. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| New Jersey.. | Cape May,.. | 3,632 | 5,344 | 310 | 17 | 1.47 |
| | Cumberland, | 12,640 | 14,374 | 450 | 32 | 1.13 |
| | Salem,..... | 12,761 | 16,024 | 300 | 53 | 1.25 |
| Pennsylvania | Chester, ..... | 39,596 | 57,513 | 732 | 54 | 1.45 |
| | Delaware,... | 14,734 | 19,791 | 220 | nearly 90 | 1.34 |
| Delaware.... | Newcastle,.. | 24,429 | 33,120 | 456 | 72 | 1.35 |
| | Kent,..... | 20,495 | 19,872 | 640 | 30 | 3 per cent. |
| | Sussex,..... | 28,540 | 25,093 | 875 | 28 | 11 do. |
| Maryland.... | Caroline,.... | 9,453 | 7,806 | 240 | 32 | 17½ do. |
| | Cecil,..... | 13,066 | 17,232 | 264 | 65 | 1.31 |
| | Dorchester,. | 18,108 | 18,843 | 640 | 29 | 1.04 |
| | Kent,..... | 11,450 | 10,842 | 240 | 77 | 10 per cent. |
| | Queen Anne, | 16,648 | 12,633 | 400 | 31 | 24 do. |
| | Somerset,... | 17,579 | 19,508 | 540 | 36 | 1.11 |
| | Talbot,..... | 14,157 | 13,090 | 200 | 60 | 15 per cent. |
| | Worcester,.. | 16,971 | 18,377 | 700 | 26 | 1.08 |
| | Amount,..... | 274,299 | 308,442 | 8,207 | 37 | 1.124 |

With similar views which induced me to construct the foregoing tables, I drew up a rough table of that part of Virginia east of the Blue Ridge, and intended to copy it for your use; but, finding it divided into sixty-five counties, some of which had been, from 1810 to 1840, divided, I considered it more satisfactory to present the whole in one point of view. That part of Virginia has a rather remarkable approach to a triangle, having two hundred and sixty miles along the Blue Ridge, a very near equal distance on North Carolina—and, in direct distance, about two hundred and twenty from the southeastern angle on the Atlantic Ocean to the northern at the mouth of the Shenandoah: area, about 27,000 square miles.

On this space, in 1810, by the census returns of that year, there existed a population of 705,196; which mass had, in the ensuing thirty years, augmented to 800,036, or increased by slow ratio of 1.134. Many of the counties remained nearly stationary, while some, similar to several in Table II., had diminished in population.

TABLE III.—*Summary of Tables I. and II.*

| Tables. | Population, 1810. | Population, 1840. | Area in sq. miles. | Population to the square mile, 1840. | Ratio of increase in 30 years. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Table I..... | 1,243,216 | 1,733,029 | 33,326 | 52 | 1.39 |
| Table II..... | 274,299 | 308,442 | 8,207 | 37 | 1.124 |
| Amount,..... | 1,517,515 | 2,041,471 | 41,523 | 49 | 1.345 |

TABLE IV.—*Elements of Table II. combined with those of Eastern Virginia.*

| | Population, 1810. | Population, 1840. | Area in sq. miles. | Population to the square mile, 1840. | Ratio of increase in 30 years. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Table II..... | 274,299 | 308,342 | 8,207 | 37 | 1.124 |
| Eastern Virginia,... | 705,196 | 800,036 | 27,000 | 33 7-10 | 1.134 |
| Amount,..... | 979,495 | 1,108,478 | 35,207 | 31 4-10 | 1.131 |

The two right-hand columns of these tables afford lessons which ought to excite serious reflections on our domestic policy. To stay the current of western emigration is a hopeless prospect, but many may be restrained from casting themselves on the current by timely warning. Let any person open a map of the United States, and scan the surface embraced by all the tabular views here presented, and then, with an Atlas of the World before him, find, if he can, a single other space on earth, all things considered, superior. I have not, for obvious reasons, included lower New York, and the more populous maritime counties of New Jersey; but may observe that no other principle in statistics is more sure in application than that great cities contribute to make great counties around them. That districts in their vicinity should not only remain, as to population, stationary, but some of them have a diminishing ratio, while were rising such cities as New York, Philadelphia, Wilmington and Baltimore, must arise from some sinister cause. Let us pause a moment, and examine the general progress of the entire population of the United States, during the thirty years' period, from 1810 to 1840.

TABLE V.—*Tabular View of the Progressive Population of the whole States and Territories of the United States, which were embraced by both enumerations.*

| States. | Population, 1810. | Population, 1840. | Area in square miles. | Population to the square mile, 1840. | Ratio of increase in 30 years. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Maine,..... | 228,705 | 501,793 | 33,000 | 15.2 | 2.19 |
| New Hampshire,..... | 214,360 | 284,574 | 9,280 | 30 | 1.33 |
| Vermont,..... | 217,713 | 291,948 | 10,213 | 28 | 1.34 |
| Massachusetts,..... | 472,040 | 737,699 | 7,800 | 94 | 1.56 |
| Rhode Island,..... | 77,031 | 108,830 | 1,360 | 80 | 1.40 |
| Connecticut,..... | 262,042 | 309,878 | 4,674 | 66 | 1.18 |
| New York,..... | 959,949 | 2,428,921 | 46,000 | 52.7 | 2.53 |
| New Jersey,..... | 249,555 | 373,303 | 6,900 | 54 | 1.49 |
| Pennsylvania,..... | 810,091 | 1,724,033 | 43,950 | 41.4 | 2.12 |
| Delaware,..... | 72,674 | 78,085 | 2,068 | 37.7 | 1.07 4-10 |
| Maryland,..... | 380,546 | 470,019 | 10,800 | 43 | 1.23 |
| Virginia,..... | 974,642 | 1,239,797 | 64,000 | 19.3 | 1.33 |
| North Carolina,..... | 555,500 | 753,419 | 43,800 | 17.2 | 1.35 |
| South Carolina,..... | 415,115 | 594,398 | 30,000 | 19.8 | 1.37 |
| Georgia,..... | 252,433 | 691,392 | 58,200 | 12 | 2.34 |
| Alabama,..... | 20,845 | 590,756 | 50,000 | 11.8 | 2.74 |
| Mississippi,..... | 40,352 | 375,651 | 45,350 | 8.2 | 9.30 |
| Louisiana,..... | 76,566 | 352,411 | 48,220 | 7.5 | 4.60 |
| Tennessee,..... | 261,727 | 829,210 | 40,000 | 20 | 3.13 |
| Kentucky,..... | 406,511 | 779,828 | 39,000 | 20 | 1.90 |
| Ohio,..... | 230,760 | 1,519,467 | 39,000 | 40 | 6.58 |
| Michigan,..... | 4,762 | 212,267 | 54,000 | 40 | 44.6 |
| Indiana,..... | 24,520 | 685,866 | 36,250 | 19 | 27.9 |
| Illinois,..... | 12,282 | 476,183 | 59,000 | 8 | 38.9 |
| Missouri,..... | 20,845 | 383,702 | 60,300 | 19 | 18.4 |
| Columbia,..... | 24,023 | 43,712 | 100 | | 1.81 |
| Amount,..... | 7,239,814 | 16,837,285 | 827,264 | 20½ | 2.32 |

The figures in table V. speak in strong language, the peculiar diffusion of population

—the immense void to fill up in the already organized states, and the highly important fact that while, in 1840, several of the central states nearly doubled the mean population of the Union, as many of the old Atlantic states fell short of the mean of the whole.

In such estimates, we may premise that positive accuracy cannot be attained, and ought not to be expected. It is, however, of very minor consequence that minute details do not present mathematical precision, while the general results cannot be disputed. If no change takes place in the current of emigration, the centre of political power must correspond with the centre of force, and leave at long distance the Atlantic coast.

# RAILROAD STATISTICS.

## TARIFF OF RATES ON THE BALTIMORE AND OHIO RAILROAD.

The following is the tariff of rates of transportation on the main stem of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad, between Baltimore and Cumberland. The rates are subject to some little modification when a whole car is engaged for a specific article.

RATE PER 100 POUNDS.

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Ale in bottles, | *cents*, 50 | Earthen and Stone ware, | 40 | Marble, undressed | 25 |
| Ale, brls. or hhds. | 40 | Feathers, | 50 | Mill Stones, | 50 |
| Apples, in brls. | 40 | Fish, fresh | 50 | Molasses, | 40 |
| Ashes, Pot or Pearl, | 25 | Fish, in barrels, | 25 | Nails and Spikes, | 30 |
| Bacon, in hhds. | 25 | Flax, | 50 | Oil, in bottles or cases, | 50 |
| Bark, unground | 25 | Flax Seed, | 40 | Oil, in casks, | 40 |
| Bark, ground | 25 *a* 30 | Flour, see *specific.* | | Oranges, | 50 |
| Beef, fresh | 50 | Fruit, dried | 40 | Oysters, | 50 |
| Beef, in brls. | 25 | Furs and Peltry, | 50 | Paints, | 25 |
| Beer or Porter, bottles | 50 | Ginseng, | 50 | Paper, | 50 |
| Beer in brls. | 40 | Glass, window | 25 | Pipe clay, | 25 |
| Beeswax, | 50 | Glue, | 50 | Pitch, | 25 |
| Bonnets in cases, | 50 | Grain,* every kind, | 50 | Plaster—see *specific.* | |
| Boots and Shoes, | 50 | Granite, | 25 | Pork, fresh | 50 |
| Bread, | 50 | Grapes, | 50 | Pork, salted | 25 |
| Bricks, | 30 | Grindstones, | 30 | Potatoes, Turnips, &c. | 25 |
| Buhr blocks, | 40 | Groceries generally, | 25 | Queensware, | 25 |
| Butter, fresh | 50 | Hats, | 50 | Rags, | 40 |
| Butter, firkins or casks | 25 | Hay in bales, | 40 | Rails and Posts, fencing | 25 |
| Cabbages, | 25 | Heading and Staves, | 25 | Raisins, | 50 |
| Candles, | 40 | Hemp & Flax, in bales, | 30 | Rice, | 40 |
| Castings, | 25 | Hides, dry | 40 | Rosin, | 25 |
| Cedar ware, | 50 | Hides, green | 30 | Salt, | 25 |
| Charcoal, | 50 | Hardware, | 25 | Shingles, | 25 |
| Cheese, | 25 | Hollow Ware, | 25 | Ship stuffs, | 25 *a* 30 |
| China ware, | 50 | Hoop poles, | 25 | Shot, | 50 |
| Chrome ore, | 25 | Hops, | 50 | Skins, deer, &c. | 40 |
| Cider, bottles, | 50 | Horns, | 50 | Slate, | 40 |
| Cider, in brls. | 40 | Iron, blooms, | 25 | Snake root, | 50 |
| Cigars, | 50 | Iron, manufactured | 30 | Steel, | 40 |
| Clover Seed, | 40 | Iron, pigs, | 25 | Tallow, | 25 |
| Coal, see *specific.* | | Iron ore, | 25 | Tar, | 25 |
| Coffee, | 25 | Iron, scrap | 25 | Tea, | 50 |
| Copper in pigs, | 40 | Lard, kegs or casks, | 25 | Tin, in pigs, | 50 |
| Copper, manufactured | 50 | Lead, bars or pigs, | 25 | Tin plate, boxes, | 25 |
| Copper ore, | 25 | Leather, | 40 | Tin ware, | 50 |
| Cordage, | 50 | Lemons, | 50 | Tobacco, Amer., in hhds. or boxes, | 25 |
| Corn brooms, | 50 | Liquors, foreign | 50 | Tobacco, foreign, bales, | 50 |
| Corn meal, | 25 | Live stock, | 30 | Whiskey, brls. or hhds. | 25 |
| Cotton, in bales, | 40 | Lumber, generally, | 25 | Wines, | 50 |
| Drugs and Dyes, | 35 | Mahogany, | 40 | Wool, bales, | 40 |
| Dry Goods, | 35 | Manure, | 25 | | |

* Wheat is 23.15 cents per 100 lbs., and in the same proportion for intermediate distances as Flour.

SPECIFIC RATES.

| | |
|---|---|
| Cumberland Coal—per ton, per mile, | 2 cents. |
| " " from Cumberland to Baltimore, per ton, | $3 |
| " " " " Washington city, | 3 56 |
| " " " " Dam No 6, | 0 75 |
| Plaster Paris, per ton, per mile, | 2 cents. |

FLOUR.

| From | | Per barrel. | From | | Per barrel. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Cumberland | to Baltimore, | 50 c. | Point of Rocks | to Baltimore, | 21½ c. |
| Patterson's Creek | " | 50 | Frederick | " | 20 |
| Green Spring Run | " | 50 | Doup's Switch | " | " |
| Little Cacapon | " | 50 | Davis' Switch | " | " |
| Great Cacapon | " | 50 | Buckeystown | " | " |
| Hancock | " | 40 | Monocacy | " | " |
| Licking Creek | " | 37 | Reel's Mill | " | " |
| North Mountain | " | 33 | Ijamsville | " | " |
| Hedgesville | " | " | Monrovia | " | " |
| Martinsburg | " | " | Mount Airy | " | " |
| Flagg's Mill | " | " | Woodbine | " | " |
| Kerneysville | " | " | Hood's Mill | " | " |
| Duffield's | " | " | Sykesville | " | " |
| Harper's Ferry | " | 25 | Marriottsville | " | 17 |
| Weverton | " | 25 | Woodstock | " | 15 |
| Knoxville | " | 24½ | Elysville | " | 13 |
| Berlin | " | 23½ | Ellicott's Mills | " | 9 |
| Catoctin | " | 22 | Ilchester | " | 8 |

# COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

## IMPORTS OF FOREIGN MERCHANDISE INTO THE UNITED STATES.

We gave in the May number of the Merchants' Magazine a very full view of the commerce of the United States, derived from the Annual Report of the Secretary of the Treasury, embracing summary statements of our domestic and foreign exports; imports from each foreign country; commerce and navigation of each state; the tonnage of our commercial marine, etc., etc. We now proceed to lay before our readers a summary statement of the quantity and value, as far as they can be ascertained from the official documents of the Treasury Department of the Government.

A SUMMARY STATEMENT OF THE QUANTITY AND VALUE OF GOODS, WARES, AND MERCHANDISE, IMPORTED INTO THE UNITED STATES DURING THE YEAR ENDING 30TH OF JUNE, 1845.

| Species of Merchandise. | Quantity. | Value. |
|---|---|---|
| FREE OF DUTY. | | |
| Bullion—gold, | ..... | $66,103 |
| Silver, | ..... | 41,275 |
| Specie—gold, | ..... | 752,747 |
| Silver, | ..... | 3,210,117 |
| Teas, pounds. | 19,630,045 | 5,730,514 |
| Coffee, do. | 107,860,911 | 6,221,271 |
| Copper, in plates and sheets, | ..... | 738,936 |
| in pigs, bars, and old, | ..... | 1,225,301 |
| Brass, in pigs, bars, and old, | ..... | 13,702 |
| Dye woods, in sticks, | ..... | 603,408 |
| Barilla, | ..... | 22,917 |
| Burr stones, unwrought, | ..... | 32,634 |
| Crude brimstone, | ..... | 108,619 |
| All other articles, | ..... | 3,380,306 |
| Total, | 127,490,956 | 22,147,840 |

| Species of merchandise. | Quantity. | Value. |
|---|---|---|
| PAYING DUTIES AD VALOREM. | | |
| Manufactures of wool, cloths, and cassimeres, | ..... | $5,411,850 |
| merino shawls of wool, | ..... | 226,317 |
| blankets, not above 75 cents each, | ..... | 304,677 |
| above 75 cents each, | ..... | 694,237 |
| worsted stuffs, | ..... | 1,938,109 |
| hosiery, gloves, mits, and bindings, | ..... | 741,242 |
| woollen and worsted yarn, | ..... | 187,975 |
| other articles, | ..... | 553,468 |
| Manufactures of cotton, dyed, printed, or colored, | ..... | 8,572,546 |
| white or uncolored, | ..... | 1,823,451 |
| velvets, cords, moleskins, fustians, &c. | ..... | 671,291 |
| twist, yarn, or thread, | ..... | 565,769 |
| hosiery, gloves, mits, caps & binding, | ..... | 1,326,631 |
| other manufactures, | ..... | 903,594 |
| Silk and worsted goods, | ..... | 1,510,310 |
| Camlets, and other manufactures of goat's hair and mohair, | ..... | 228,838 |
| Silks, floss, and other manufactures not specified, | ..... | 1,027,541 |
| Lace, thread and cotton, | ..... | 1,122,997 |
| gold and silver, &c. | ..... | 28,434 |
| Flax, linens, bleached and other, | ..... | 4,298,224 |
| other articles, | ..... | 624,885 |
| Hempen goods, sheetings, brown and white, | ..... | 106,730 |
| ticklenburgs, osnaburgs, and burlaps, | ..... | 195,471 |
| other articles, | ..... | 205,782 |
| Clothing, ready made, | ..... | 67,232 |
| other articles of wear, | ..... | 1,105,796 |
| Grass cloth and carpeting, not specified, | ..... | 50,059 |
| matting and mats, | ..... | 126,190 |
| Wire, brass, copper, and plated, | ..... | 18,256 |
| Arms, fire and side, | ..... | 146,155 |
| Manufactures of iron and steel, | ..... | 4,023,590 |
| copper, | ..... | 107,756 |
| brass, | ..... | 120,083 |
| tin, | ..... | 13,131 |
| other metals, | ..... | 26,517 |
| Saddlery, | ..... | 268,247 |
| Manufactures of leather, not specified, | ..... | 109,668 |
| of wood, | ..... | 176,092 |
| Glass, above 22 by 14 inches, | ..... | 80,263 |
| silvered, framed, and other, | ..... | 371,375 |
| Hats, bonnets, Leghorn, straw, chip, &c., | ..... | 712,923 |
| palm leaf, | ..... | 52,103 |
| Wares, China and porcelain, | ..... | 252,256 |
| earthen and stone, | ..... | 2,187,259 |
| plated and gilt, | ..... | 159,227 |
| japanned, | ..... | 59,895 |
| Furs, undressed, on the skin, | ..... | 256,586 |
| hats, caps, and muffs, | ..... | 16,646 |
| hatters' and other, | ..... | 465,739 |
| Hair cloth and seating, | ..... | 90,643 |
| Brushes of all kinds, | ..... | 67,426 |
| Paper hanging, | ..... | 46,285 |
| Slates of all kinds, | ..... | 121,768 |
| Black lead pencils, | ..... | 11,798 |
| Copper bottoms, cut round, &c. | ..... | 3,455 |
| Zinc, in plates, | ..... | 73,909 |
| Chronometers and clocks, | ..... | 30,806 |
| Watches, and parts of watches, | ..... | 1,106,543 |
| Gold and silver, manufactures of, | ..... | 39,380 |
| Jewelry, | ..... | 139,539 |
| Quicksilver, | ..... | 54,993 |
| Buttons, metal and other, | ..... | 109,230 |

| Species of merchandise. | Quantity. | Value. |
|---|---|---|
| PAYING DUTIES AD VALOREM. | | |
| Teas, imported from places other than their growth and production,.....lbs. | 182,455 | $31,274 |
| Coffee,.....do.....do.....do.....do. | 272,458 | 22,261 |
| Corks,..... | ..... | 90,862 |
| Quills,..... | ..... | 9,387 |
| Wood, unmanufactured, mahogany and rose,..... | ..... | 299,082 |
| Wool, unmanufactured, not exceeding 7 cts. per pound,...pd. | 23,382,097 | 1,553,789 |
| exceeding 7 cents per pound,....do. | 450,943 | 136,005 |
| Articles not enumerated—at 1 per cent,..... | ..... | 212,975 |
| 2½ do..... | ..... | 1,690,460 |
| 5 do..... | ..... | 4,975,003 |
| 7 do..... | ..... | 32,576 |
| 7½ do..... | ..... | 29,685 |
| 10 do..... | ..... | 170,641 |
| 12½ do..... | ..... | 253 |
| 15 do..... | ..... | 292,873 |
| 20 do..... | ..... | 2,290,897 |
| 25 do..... | ..... | 1,103,394 |
| 30 do..... | ..... | 1,064,616 |
| 35 do..... | ..... | 46,701 |
| Total,..... | ..... | $60,191,862 |
| PAYING SPECIFIC DUTIES. | | |
| Silks—sewing silk, silk twist, or twist of silk & mohair,.lbs. | 82,196 | $431,632 |
| pongees, plain white, and other manufactures of,.do. | 894,321 | 8,269,784 |
| raw silk, and all silk in the gum, &c.....do. | 62,697 | 208,454 |
| silk shoes and slippers, laced boots, &c.....pairs. | 4,047 | 3,071 |
| silk hats and bonnets,.....No. | 5,884 | 17,839 |
| Woollens, flannels, .....square yds. | 205,130 | 76,055 |
| baizes,.....do. | 278,456 | 100,382 |
| Carpeting, Wilton and Saxony,..... .....do. | 32,498 | 86,789 |
| Brussels,.....do. | 227,170 | 310,174 |
| Venetian and other ingrained,.....do. | 46,778 | 34,951 |
| Sail duck,.....do. | 744,211 | 272,031 |
| Cotton bagging, of hemp,.....do. | 1,551,044 | 117,331 |
| of other materials,.....do. | 228,448 | 11,194 |
| Floor-cloth, patent, painted, &c.....do. | 7,804 | 5,714 |
| Oil-cloth, furniture and other,.....do. | 106,317 | 27,150 |
| Wines, in casks, bottles, and other vessels— | | |
| Madeira,.....gallons. | 101,176 | 145,237 |
| sherry,..... .....do. | 23,616 | 38,289 |
| Champagne,.....do. | 101,464 | 303,399 |
| Burgundy,.....do. | 543 | 1,157 |
| Port,.....do. | 262,977 | 165,491 |
| claret, and other red wines of France,.....do. | 1,481,496 | 364,055 |
| white, of France,.....do. | 487,513 | 143,616 |
| white, of Portugal,.....do. | 136,796 | 83,999 |
| red, of Portugal,.....do. | 113,607 | 69,532 |
| Teneriffe,.....do. | 5,846 | 6,426 |
| of Spain,.....do. | 300,662 | 73,585 |
| of Sicily,.....do. | 119,590 | 46,033 |
| other Mediterranean,.....do. | 51,988 | 13,323 |
| of Germany,.....do. | 27,677 | 15,235 |
| all other,.....do. | 2,881 | 809 |
| Foreign distilled spirits— | | |
| brandy,.....gallons. | 1,081,314 | 819,540 |
| from grain,.....do. | 606,311 | 262,543 |
| from other materials,.....do. | 270,484 | 78,957 |
| cordials,.....do. | 20,727 | 30,660 |
| Beer, ale, and porter,.....do. | 108,066 | 96,596 |
| Vinegar,.....do. | 38,287 | 6,292 |
| Molasses,..... .....pounds. | 201,311,364 | 3,154,762 |

| Species of merchandise. | | Quantity. | Value. |
|---|---|---|---|
| PAYING SPECIFIC DUTIES. | | | |
| Oil, olive, in casks, | gallons. | 82,655 | $48,579 |
| linseed, | do. | 227,114 | 105,574 |
| all other, | do. | 3,533 | 3,779 |
| Cocoa, | pounds. | 1,655,094 | 92,389 |
| Chocolate, | do. | 5,027 | 1,627 |
| Sugar, brown, | do. | 111,957,404 | 4,556,392 |
| white clayed, | do. | 1,662,574 | 91,172 |
| loaf and other refined, | do. | 2,044,862 | 132,991 |
| Fruits, almonds, | do. | 1,757,349 | 152,869 |
| currants, | do. | 1,237,882 | 59,838 |
| prunes, | do. | 468,693 | 43,695 |
| figs, | do. | 1,409,663 | 110,916 |
| dates, | do. | 89,271 | 1,114 |
| raisins, | do. | 10,739,220 | 706,594 |
| Nuts, except those used for dyeing, | do. | 2,179,435 | 68,733 |
| Spices, mace, | do. | 14,997 | 12,719 |
| nutmegs, | do. | 250,253 | 176,221 |
| cinnamon, | do. | 3,440 | 2,932 |
| cloves, | do. | 155,252 | 24,429 |
| pepper, black, | do. | 1,012,986 | 37,875 |
| Cayenne pepper, | do. | 17,861 | 1,699 |
| pimento, | do. | 2,832,750 | 164,690 |
| cassia, | do. | 942,231 | 86,056 |
| Ginger, | do. | 684,380 | 26,434 |
| Camphor, | do. | 705,642 | 143,542 |
| Cheese, | do. | 65,109 | 8,841 |
| Pearl barley, | do. | 48,334 | 1,729 |
| Beef and pork, | do. | 27,866 | 1,088 |
| Hams and bacon, | do. | 30,968 | 3,540 |
| Bristles, | do. | 343,218 | 172,076 |
| Saltpetre, | do. | 1,922,694 | 80,885 |
| Indigo, | do. | 1,131,256 | 862,700 |
| Woad or pastel, | do. | 108,166 | 3,194 |
| Ivory black, | do. | 12,861 | 1,243 |
| Opium, | do. | 14,432 | 37,638 |
| Glue, | do. | 8,264 | 1,275 |
| Gunpowder, | do. | 8,081 | 3,284 |
| Bleaching powder, | do. | 1,882,473 | 73,174 |
| Cotton, | do. | 13,239,935 | 646,966 |
| Thibet, angora, and other goat's hair, | do. | 63,254 | 18,443 |
| Cigars, | do. | 815,172 | 1,160,644 |
| Dry ochre, and in oil, | do. | 2,121,529 | 22,168 |
| Red and white lead, | do. | 231,171 | 14,744 |
| Cordage, tarred, and cable, | do. | 1,114,839 | 67,209 |
| untarred, and yarn, | do. | 415,963 | 22,391 |
| Twine and pack thread, | do. | 588,763 | 115,768 |
| Seines, | do. | 10,579 | 5,298 |
| Hemp, | cwt. | 28,155 | 145,209 |
| Manilla, sun, and other hemps of India, | do. | 70,708 | 238,179 |
| Jute, sisal grass, coir, &c., used as hemp for cordage, | do. | 24,339 | 106,717 |
| Cordilla, or tow of hemp or flax, | do. | 8,433 | 46,602 |
| Flax, unmanufactured, | do. | 8,879 | 90,509 |
| Rags of all kinds, | do. | 10,903,101 | 421,080 |
| Manufactures of glass— | | | |
| watch crystals, and spectacle glasses, | gross. | 2,958 | 12,677 |
| cut glass, | pounds. | 49,503 | 26,127 |
| plain, moulded, or pressed, weighing over 8 oz. | do. | 14,917 | 2,743 |
| plain, moulded, &c., weighing 8 oz. or under, | do. | 5,215 | 2,385 |
| plain tumblers, | do. | 6,234 | 790 |
| cylinder, | square ft. | 165,861 | 14,679 |
| crown, | do. | 105,715 | 13,211 |
| polished plate, | do. | 69,361 | 21,292 |

| Species of merchandise. | | Quantity. | Value. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Manufactures of glass— | | | |
| apothecaries' vials, | gross. | 402 | $1,562 |
| bottles, | do. | 10,015 | 44,835 |
| Demijohns, | No. | 18,071 | 5,408 |
| Patent sheathing metal, | pounds. | 33,561 | 5,874 |
| Pins, solid-headed, in packs of 5,100 each, | packs. | 45,594 | 25,828 |
| pound pins, | pounds. | 48,645 | 19,250 |
| Muskets and rifles, | No. | 7,034 | 16,185 |
| Wire, iron and steel, cap and bonnet, | pounds. | 22,445 | 10,969 |
| all other, | do. | 89,797 | 14,692 |
| Manufactures of iron— | | | |
| tacks, brads, and sprigs, | pounds. | 15,789 | 1,678 |
| wood screws, | do. | 86,668 | 17,133 |
| nails, cut and wrought, | do. | 921,412 | 63,456 |
| spikes, | do. | 16,430 | 526 |
| chain cables, | do. | 1,992,849 | 57,193 |
| chains other than cables, | do. | 264,270 | 10,718 |
| wrought iron for ships, locomotives, and steam engines, | do. | 123,201 | 5,613 |
| malleable iron, | do. | 3,779 | 327 |
| Manufactures of iron and steel— | | | |
| mill, cross-cut, and pit saws, | No. | 2,672 | 6,996 |
| steam gas pipes, | pounds. | 2,385 | 408 |
| anchors, | do. | 58,361 | 2,371 |
| anvils, | do. | 1,035,319 | 57,397 |
| blacksmiths' hammers and sledges, | do. | 117,262 | 5,637 |
| Castings, vessels of, | do. | 630,518 | 18,236 |
| all other, | do. | 148,336 | 4,792 |
| glazed or tinned hollow ware, | do. | 458,019 | 33,917 |
| sad irons, hatters' and tailors' irons, | do. | 17,983 | 512 |
| cast iron butt hinges, | do. | 1,324,942 | 80,507 |
| axletrees, or parts thereof, | do. | 20,437 | 1,992 |
| Iron, braziers' rods, from 3-16 to 10-16th inch diam. | do. | 596,549 | 25,814 |
| nail or spike rods, slit, rolled, or hammered, | do. | 36,788 | 929 |
| sheet and hoop iron, | do. | 11,972,198 | 489,528 |
| casement rods, band, scroll, &c., | do. | 216,255 | 7,671 |
| in pigs, | cwt. | 550,209 | 506,291 |
| old and scrap, | do. | 116,950 | 119,740 |
| bar, manufactured by rolling, | do. | 1,023,772 | 1,671,748 |
| bar, manufactured otherwise, | do. | 363,530 | 872,157 |
| Steel, | do. | 64,283 | 775,675 |
| Leather, sole and upper, | pounds. | 3,136 | 1,154 |
| gloves, | dozen. | 173,841 | 699,382 |
| boots and shoes, | pairs. | 31,836 | 42,259 |
| Skins, tanned and dressed, | dozen. | 14,713 | 114,497 |
| tanned and not dressed, | do. | 4,090 | 12,626 |
| Paper, writing, | pounds. | 49,322 | 7,926 |
| all other, | do. | 114,579 | 43,798 |
| Books printed forty years before importation, | volumes. | 27,402 | 19,967 |
| in Latin and Greek, | pounds. | 10,589 | 9,386 |
| in Hebrew, | do. | 15,926 | 13,452 |
| in English, | do. | 110,902 | 113,949 |
| in other languages, | volumes. | 81,995 | 59,192 |
| in pamphlets and sheets, | pounds. | 12,077 | 8,447 |
| lexicons and all other, | do. | 6,071 | 4,969 |
| Coal, | tons. | 85,776 | 223,919 |
| Salt, | bushels. | 8,543,527 | 898,663 |
| Potatoes, | do. | 211,327 | 58,949 |
| Fish, dried or smoked, | cwt. | 1,297 | 9,646 |
| pickled, | barrels. | 30,506 | 280,519 |
| Value of articles not enumerated | | | 86,801 |
| Total, | | | 34,914,862 |

SUMMARY STATEMENT OF THE QUANTITY AND VALUE OF MERCHANDISE PAYING SPECIFIC DUTIES, DESIGNATED AS ARTICLES NOT ENUMERATED IN THE GENERAL STATEMENT OF FOREIGN MERCHANDISE IMPORTED DURING THE YEAR ENDING JUNE 30, 1845.

| Species of Merchandise. | Quantity. | Value. |
|---|---|---|
| Spirits of turpentine,.....gallons. | 33 | $27 |
| Candy,.....pounds. | 1,704 | 162 |
| Syrup, of sugar and cane.....do.... | 112 | 3 |
| Wax and spermaceti candles,.....do... | 529 | 260 |
| Tallow candles,.....do... | 6 | 2 |
| Soap, hard,.....do.... | 8,189 | 785 |
| soft,.....barrels. | 6 | 46 |
| Tallow,.....pounds. | 168,681 | 9,505 |
| Starch,.....do... | 24,179 | 1,295 |
| Butter,.....do... | 3,278 | 281 |
| Alum,.....do... | 61 | 8 |
| Copperas,.....do.... | 135 | 12 |
| Oil of vitriol,.....do... | 8,770 | 801 |
| Quinine,.....do... | 23,079 | 50,048 |
| Sulphate of barytes,.....do... | 1,327,375 | 10,020 |
| Tobacco manufactured, snuff,.....do... | 477 | 167 |
| other than snuff and cigars,.....do.... | 7,236 | 1,131 |
| Whiting, and Paris white,.....do.... | 26,584 | 305 |
| Litharge,.....do.... | 1,703 | 98 |
| Putty,.....do.... | 232 | 34 |
| Sugar of lead,.....do... | 16,158 | 1,009 |
| Shoddy, or waste,.....do... | 780 | 8 |
| Hat bodies, or felts, made in whole or in part of wool,..No. | 216 | 249 |
| Copper, rods and bolts,.....pounds. | 536 | 117 |
| nails and spikes,.....do... | 1,252 | 3,361 |
| Lead, shot,.....do.... | 1,341 | 59 |
| old and scrap,.....do.... | 15,378 | 302 |
| in sheets and forms not specified,.....do.... | 4,231 | 156 |
| Brass battery, or hammered kettles,.....do.... | 12,422 | 3,179 |
| Brass screws,.....do.... | 405 | 205 |
| Blank books, bound,.....do.... | 969 | 796 |
| unbound,.....do.... | 845 | 719 |
| Coke, or culm,.....do.... | 18,267 | 564 |
| Wheat,.....bushels. | 281 | 257 |
| Barley,.....do.... | 249 | 158 |
| Rye,.....do.... | 43 | 44 |
| Oats,.....do... | 1,739 | 593 |
| Indian corn,.....do... | 13 | 5 |
| Wheat flour,.....cwt.... | 14 | 30 |
| Total,..... | ..... | 86,801 |

## TRADE AND COMMERCE OF THE UNITED KINGDOM, IN 1845-46.

We have received the official accounts of the British Board of Trade, relating to the Trade and Navigation of the United Kingdom, for the twelve months ending the 5th of January, 1846,* as compared with the twelve months ending on the 5th of January, 1845, (the previous year.) The first table gives the quantities of the principal articles of merchandise imported into, and also the quantities entered for the home consumption of, the United Kingdom. The articles marked thus, (*) in the column of quantities cleared for consumption in 1846, are those on which the duty has been repealed; the only return, therefore, being the quantities imported in the column under that head. Table II. embraces an account of the exports of foreign and colonial merchandise from the United Kingdom, in the twelve months ending on the 5th of January, 1846, as compared with two preceding years. In Table III., we have an account of the declared value of exports

* The English commercial or financial year closes on the 5th of January.

of the principal articles of British and Irish Produce and Manufactures, in the twelve months ending January 5th, in each of the years 1844, 1845, and 1846. Table IV. gives the number and tonnage of vessels employed in the foreign trade of the United Kingdom, for three years. These tables are prepared either by, or under the direction of G. R. Porter, Esq., and dated at the "Statistical Department, Board of Trade, February, 1846"—so that, in less than a month after the close of the commercial year, the British merchant and statesman is in possession of a summary view of the commerce of the kingdom for the past year, and we are thus enabled to lay the accounts of British trade and navigation before the readers of the Merchants' Magazine, in this country, some eight or nine months earlier than the statements embraced in the reports of the Secretary of the Treasury, (of the United States,) on Commerce and Navigation, for the same year. We earnestly hope Mr. Secretary Walker, or the Congress of the United States, will adopt a similar expeditious course, in the promulgation of these important documents. Their chief practical value depends upon their prompt publication. The only remedy for the evil is that which we suggested in the Merchants' Magazine for May, 1846.*

I.—IMPORTS INTO THE UNITED KINGDOM.

*An Account of the Imports of the Principal Articles of Foreign and Colonial Merchandise, and of the consumption of such articles in the twelve months ended 5th January, 1846, compared with the preceding year.*

| | Quantities imported. | | Quan. ent'd for home con. | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1845. | 1846. | 1845. | 1846. |
| Animals, living—Oxen and bulls,.No. | 3,682 | 9,782 | 3,710 | 9,782 |
| Cows,..... | 1,154 | 6,502 | 1,156 | 6,502 |
| Calves, ..... | 53 | 586 | 55 | 586 |
| Sheep,..... | 2,801 | 15,846 | 2,801 | 15,846 |
| Lambs,..... | 16 | 112 | 16 | 112 |
| Swine and hogs,..... | 265 | 1,598 | 269 | 1,598 |
| Bacon,.....cwts. | 36 | 54 | 36 | 64 |
| Barilla and alkali,.....tons | 2,663 | 3,145 | 2,621 | Free.* |
| Bark for tanners' or dyers' use,...cwts. | 632,907 | 567,935 | 651,489 | .....* |
| Beef, salted, not corned— | | | | |
| Of British possessions,..... | 20,250 | 3,288 | 4,014 | 2,361 |
| Foreign,..... | 86,516 | 80,932 | 1,143 | 1,179 |
| Beef, fresh, or slightly salted,..... | 3 | 3,273 | 24 | 651 |
| Butter,..... | 185,511 | 254,395 | 180,965 | 240,118 |
| Cheese,..... | 213,850 | 268,245 | 212,206 | 258,246 |
| Cocoa,.....lbs. | 3,731,256 | 4,917,907 | 2,590,528 | 2,589,984 |
| Coffee—of British possessions,..... | 24,113,230 | 23,151,602 | 19,557,922 | 20,803,912 |
| Foreign,..... | 22,409,958 | 27,233,767 | 11,833,375 | 13,514,183 |
| Total of coffee,..... | 46,523,188 | 50,385,369 | 31,391,297 | 34,318,095 |
| Corn—Wheat,.....qrs. | 1,099,077 | 871,443 | 822,182 | 135,670 |
| Barley,..... | 1,019,345 | 371,130 | 1,029,001 | 299,314 |
| Oats,..... | 299,601 | 592,620 | 262,357 | 585,793 |
| Rye, ..... | 26,532 | 435 | 28,779 | 23 |
| Peas,..... | 108,001 | 84,830 | 122,984 | 82,556 |
| Beans,..... | 154,424 | 185,034 | 225,680 | 197,919 |
| Maize, or Indian corn,..... | 37,064 | 55,378 | 38,711 | 42,295 |
| Buckwheat,..... | 3,907 | 1,773 | 3,937 | 1,105 |
| Malt,..... | ..... | 1 | ..... | ..... |
| Wheat-meal, or flour,.....cwts. | 980,645 | 950,195 | 712,968 | 630,255 |
| Oat-meal,..... | 3,951 | 3,063 | 3,922 | 2,224 |
| Indian meal,..... | 105 | ..... | ..... | ..... |
| Dyes and dyeing stuffs—Cochineal,..... | 10,385 | 9,376 | 6,776 | Free.* |
| Indigo, ..... | 97,960 | 90,388 | 32,495 | .....* |
| Lac-dye,..... | 7,636 | 12,806 | 8,470 | .....* |

* The reader is referred to some remarks on this subject, introductory to the statements of the Commerce of the United States for 1845, in the Merchants' Magazine for May, 1846, Volume XIV., page 465

| | 1845. | 1846. | 1845. | 1846. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Logwood,.....tons | 22,410 | 23,013 | 20,704 | .....* |
| Madder,.....cwts. | 96,084 | 67,493 | 95,961 | .....* |
| Madder-root, ..... | 95,970 | 147,659 | 97,268 | .....* |
| Shumac, .....tons | 9,652 | 11,429 | 9,814 | .....* |
| Eggs,.....No. | 67,565,167 | 75,669,843 | 67,597,248 | 75,669,843 |
| Fish of foreign taking— | | | | |
| Eels, .....ships' lading | 86 | 86 | 86 | 86 |
| " in small quantities,.....cwts. | ..... | 4 | ..... | 4 |
| Turbots,..... | 84 | 160 | 84 | 160 |
| Oysters,.....bushels | 1 | 3 | 1 | 3 |
| Salmon,.....cwts. | 1,095 | 1,106 | 1,117 | 1,169 |
| Soles,..... | ..... | 2 | ..... | 2 |
| Turtle,..... | 397 | 387 | 405 | 387 |
| Fresh, not otherwise described,..... | 1,534 | 1,338 | 1,534 | 1,338 |
| Cured, do.,..... | 216 | 20,587 | 170 | 20,273 |
| Flax & tow, or codilla of h'mp & flax, | 1,583,494 | 1,418,423 | 1,593,533 | Free.* |
| Fruits, viz:—Currants,..... | 284,378 | 348,704 | 285,116 | 309,799 |
| Figs,..... | 31,559 | 46,965 | 33,314 | 36,065 |
| Lemons .....chests or boxes | 360,007 | 411,684 | 347,173 | 373,370 |
| and .....number, (loose,) | 35,493 | 39,891 | 35,493 | 39,891 |
| Oranges, .....at value | 603 | 1,556 | 5,470 | 6,463 |
| Raisins,.....cwts. | 217,238 | 299,101 | 202,654 | 205,311 |
| Gloves, leather,.....pairs. | 1,871,027 | 2,196,155 | 1,835,000 | 2,153,091 |
| Hams,.....cwt. | 6,732 | 5,462 | 3,568 | 2,603 |
| Hemp, undressed,..... | 913,233 | 929,516 | 901,794 | Free.* |
| Hides, untanned,..... | 637,886 | 719,482 | 628,898 | .....* |
| Mahogany,.....tons. | 25,622 | 38,609 | 24,320 | .....* |
| Meat, salt or fresh, not oth. des....cwt. | 246 | 437 | 56 | 403 |
| Molasses,..... | 591,249 | 528,238 | 615,628 | 625,868 |
| Metals: viz.—Copper ore,.....tons | 58,406 | 56,662 | 58,591 | 56,141 |
| Unwrought,.....cwt. | 28,031 | 2,524 | 93 | 106 |
| Iron, in bars, unwrought,.....tons | 24,483 | 33,295 | 21,658 | Free.* |
| Steel, unwrought,.....cwt. | 54,356 | 41,619 | 128 | .....* |
| Lead, pig and sheet,.....tons | 3,058 | 5,078 | 50 | 139 |
| Spelter,..... | 10,393 | 12,927 | 5,718 | Free.* |
| Tin blocks, ingots, bars or slabs,.cwt. | 12,085 | 25,588 | 2,078 | 8,801 |
| Oils:—Train, blubber, & Sper.,...tuns | 20,844 | 24,515 | 21,400 | Free.* |
| Palm,.....cwt. | 414,648 | 509,982 | 373,578 | .....* |
| Cocoa-nut,..... | 87,866 | 42,974 | 43,502 | .....* |
| Olive,.....tuns | 14,962 | 12,348 | 10,785 | .....* |
| Opium,.....lb. | 248,340 | 259,626 | 32,736 | 39,880 |
| Pork, salted: of British Poss.....cwt. | 2,153 | 1,517 | 248 | 172 |
| Foreign,..... | 28,627 | 38,128 | 1,073 | 1,289 |
| Fresh,..... | 63 | 133 | 63 | 133 |
| Quicksilver,.....lb. | 2,148,351 | 1,869,711 | 246,959 | Free.* |
| Rice,.....cwt. | 456,302 | 546,037 | 326,798 | 297,436 |
| Rice in the husk,.....qrs. | 36,630 | 45,187 | 38,119 | 44,574 |
| Saltpetre and cubic nitre,.....cwt. | 349,870 | 465,924 | 355,014 | Free.* |
| Seeds: viz.—Clover,..... | 124,759 | 152,517 | 92,114 | 134,105 |
| Flaxseed and Linseed,.....qrs. | 616,947 | 633,293 | 609,541 | Free.* |
| Rape,..... | 68,884 | 46,936 | 69,039 | .....* |
| Silk: viz.—Raw,.....lb. | 4,149,932 | 4,351,626 | 4,021,808 | .....* |
| Waste, knubs, and husks,.....cwt. | 15,618 | 13,122 | 15,856 | .....* |
| Thrown of all sorts,.....lb. | 400,986 | 506,884 | 410,358 | .....* |
| Silk manu. of Europe: Silk or Satin pl. | 161,466 | 167,146 | 150,571 | 154,638 |
| Figured or brocaded,..... | 109,093 | 98,022 | 103,635 | 93,742 |
| Gauze, plain, ..... | 4,886 | 21,673 | 4,734 | 20,293 |
| Striped, figured, or brocaded,..... | 13,323 | 15,954 | 12,862 | 15,666 |
| Tissue Foulards,..... | 39 | 25 | 39 | 25 |
| Crape, plain,..... | 3,817 | 4,343 | 3,281 | 3,708 |
| Figured,..... | 99 | 42 | 76 | 97 |
| Velvet, plain,..... | 15,482 | 23,173 | 13,226 | 18,967 |
| Figured,..... | 2,692 | 2,498 | 2,494 | 3,017 |

| | 1845. | 1846. | 1845. | 1846. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Silk manufactures of India: viz. | | | | |
| Bandanoes & other silk hand...pcs. | 562,801 | 752,070 | 129,814 | 177,962 |
| Other sorts,..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... |
| Skins: viz.—Goat, undressed,.....No. | 256,715 | 383,536 | 271,916 | Free.* |
| Kid, undressed,..... | 176,563 | 131,739 | 124,403 | .....* |
| Dressed,..... | 416,709 | 484,891 | 419,088 | .....* |
| Lamb, undressed,..... | 1,489,138 | 1,937,302 | 1,561,126 | .....* |
| Tanned, tawed, or dressed,..... | 3,639 | 13,556 | 3,585 | .....* |
| Spices: viz.—Cassia Lignea,.....lbs. | 1,278,413 | 1,422,444 | 115,030 | 150,976 |
| Cinnamon,..... | 951,220 | 636,806 | 18,619 | 23,506 |
| Cloves,..... | 263,178 | 414,485 | 128,384 | 112,705 |
| Mace,..... | 33,898 | 35,545 | 22,691 | 17,381 |
| Nutmegs,..... | 152,110 | 444,658 | 109,720 | 121,397 |
| Pepper,..... | 8,087,099 | 9,853,021 | 3,096,382 | 3,210,415 |
| Pimento,.....cwt. | 2,661 | 26,806 | 3,046 | 4,382 |
| Spirits: viz. Rum,...gals. (in. over p'f. | 3,120,010 | 4,807,512 | 2,198,870 | 2,469,549 |
| Brandy,..... | 1,509,098 | 1,988,079 | 1,023,650 | 1,058,775 |
| Geneva,..... | 380,883 | 410,725 | 14,936 | 15,676 |
| Sugar, unrefined: viz. | | | | |
| Of the Brit. Ps. in A., duty 14s...cwts. | 2,452,778 | 2,847,566 | 2,531,695 | 2,877,041 |
| Do. equal to wh. clayed, duty 16s 4d | ..... | 132 | ..... | 31 |
| Of Mauritius, duty 14s..... | 540,620 | 716,338 | 562,621 | 692,638 |
| East India of Brit. Pos., duty 14s. | 1,098,540 | 1,310,503 | 1,045,468 | 1,206,997 |
| Do. equal to wh. clayed, duty 16s 4d | ..... | 24,772 | ..... | 22,329 |
| Do. importing foreign sugar, duty 18s 8d and 21s 9d,..... | 2,721 | 2,187 | 98 | 4,227 |
| Foreign—free labor and under treaty, duty 23s 4d,..... | 7,516 | 167,257 | 12 | 76,182 |
| Do. white clayed, duty 28s,..... | ..... | 923 | ..... | 1,095 |
| Other sorts, duty 63s and 5 per ct. | 777,900 | 741,603 | 89 | 66 |
| Total of Sugar,..... | 4,880,075 | 5,811,281 | 4,139,983 | 4,880,606 |
| Tallow,.....cwt. | 1,079,486 | 1,192,969 | 1,085,342 | 1,193,826 |
| Tar,.....lasts. | 9,686 | 10,939 | 9,869 | Free.* |
| Tea,.....lb. | 53,147,078 | 51,057,930 | 41,369,351 | 44,183,135 |
| Timber and wood, viz.:— | | | | |
| Battens and batten ends, foreign, entered by tale,.....hundreds. | 89 | 30 | 95 | 36 |
| Boards, deals, deal ends, and plank, foreign, entered by tale,..... | 157 | 99 | 184 | 165 |
| Deals, battens, boards, or other timber or wood sawn or split:— | | | | |
| Of British Possessions,.....loads | 395,066 | 493,826 | 398,194 | 498,891 |
| Foreign,..... | 332,390 | 390,527 | 321,439 | 342,955 |
| Staves,..... | 73,255 | 88,347 | 69,224 | Free.* |
| Timber or wood, not being articles sawn or split, or otherwise dressed, except hewn, and not otherwise charged with duty:— | | | | |
| Of British Possessions,.....loads | 546,155 | 796,515 | 551,994 | 797,490 |
| Foreign,..... | 211,746 | 285,313 | 202,209 | 282,028 |
| Tobacco, viz.—Unmanufactured,...lbs. | 37,610,576 | 33,930,205 | 24,514,728 | 26,077,855 |
| Manufactured, and snuff,..... | 1,015,583 | 2,111,516 | 239,470 | 246,089 |
| Turpentine, common,.....cwts. | 452,211 | 485,381 | 466,566 | Free.* |
| Wine: viz. Cape,.....gals. | 423,336 | 446,736 | 349,587 | 357,517 |
| French,..... | 725,308 | 562,818 | 492,307 | 469,001 |
| Other sorts,..... | 7,435,942 | 7,444,969 | 6,235,557 | 6,160,327 |
| Total of wine,..... | 8,584,586 | 8,454,523 | 7,077,451 | 6,986,845 |
| Wool, Cotton: viz. Of Brit. Pos...cwts. | ..... | | | |
| Foreign,..... | ..... | | | |
| Total of Cotton wool,..... | 5,768,851 | 6,442,176 | 4,982,280 | Free.* |
| Wool, Sheep and Lamb's,.....lbs. | 65,713,761 | 76,828,152 | Free.* | .....* |

II.—EXPORTS OF FOREIGN AND COLONIAL MERCHANDISE FROM THE UNITED KINGDOM.

*An Account of the Exports of the Principal Articles of Foreign and Colonial Merchandise, in the twelve months ended 5th January, 1846, compared with the Exports in the two preceding years.*

| Articles. | Quantities Exported. 1844. | 1845. | 1846. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Cocoa,.....lbs. | 568,470 | 1,267,194 | 158,716 |
| Coffee, viz.: | | | |
| Produce of the British Possessions,. | 125,824 | 155,703 | 625,060 |
| Foreign,..... | 12,557,619 | 6,150,279 | 18,604,561 |
| Corn, viz.—Wheat,.....qrs. | 48,039 | 46,109 | 47,167 |
| Barley,..... | 4,445 | 1,042 | 23,320 |
| Oats,..... | 41,998 | 25,014 | 28,743 |
| Wheat meal and Flour,.....cwt. | 45,286 | 105,621 | 44,360 |
| Dyes and dyeing stuffs, viz.— | | | |
| Cochineal,..... | 5,626 | 7,236 | 4,982 |
| Indigo,..... | 36,959 | 51,589 | 50,379 |
| Lac-dye,..... | 3,278 | 4,806 | 8,649 |
| Logwood,.....tons. | 2,648 | 3,281 | 2,638 |
| Metals, viz.— | | | |
| Copper, unwrought,.....cwt. | 1,759 | 24,789 | 5,969 |
| Iron, bars or unwrought,.....tons. | 3,985 | 5,877 | 2,562 |
| Steel, unwrought,.....cwt. | 29,136 | 41,367 | 36,174 |
| Lead, pig,.....tons. | 2,439 | 3,199 | 3,241 |
| Spelter,..... | 6,445 | 5,625 | 2,683 |
| Tin,.....cwt. | 13,006 | 19,154 | 18,348 |
| Oil, Olive,.....tuns. | 397 | 378 | 303 |
| Opium,.....lb. | 320,947 | 196,871 | 238,243 |
| Quicksilver,..... | 1,286,922 | 1,713,735 | 1,418,684 |
| Rice, not in the husk,.....cwt. | 207,328 | 184,302 | 352,515 |
| Spices, viz.—Cassia Lignea,.....lbs. | 1,986,413 | 1,403,313 | 1,156,265 |
| Cinnamon,.....lb. | 422,505 | 661,634 | 588,309 |
| Cloves,..... | 26,504 | 70,003 | 344,533 |
| Mace,..... | 9,701 | 19,795 | 28,004 |
| Nutmegs,..... | 36,365 | 27,514 | 162,923 |
| Pepper,..... | 2,651,650 | 4,040,851 | 7,274,350 |
| Pimento,.....cwt. | 21,199 | 5,430 | 22,241 |
| Spirits, viz.— | | | |
| Rum, gals. (including overproof,.... | 1,079,250 | 741,211 | 778,954 |
| Brandy,..... | 767,460 | 686,413 | 1,061,639 |
| Geneva,..... | 317,706 | 335,125 | 348,692 |
| Sugar, unrefined, viz.— | | | |
| Of the B. P. in America,.....cwt. | 4,936 | 21 | 278 |
| Of Mauritius,..... | 196 | 143 | 375 |
| East India, of B. P..... | 4,922 | 358 | 4,405 |
| Foreign of all sorts,..... | 563,585 | 393,299 | 610,953 |
| Tobacco, unmanufactured,.....lb. | 8,702,769 | 7,840,377 | 8,694,475 |
| Foreign manufac. and Snuff,..... | 764,270 | 879,413 | 1,296,846 |
| Wine, viz.—Cape,.....gals. | 1,624 | 3,696 | 2,892 |
| French,..... | 143,554 | 140,503 | 148,691 |
| Other sorts,..... | 1,207,979 | 1,518,589 | 1,460,936 |
| Wool, Cotton, viz.— | | | |
| Of the B. P. in America,.....cwt. | 353,748 | 421,630 | 383,181 |
| Of other parts,..... | ..... | ..... | ..... |
| Wool, Sheep and Lambs',.....lb. | 2,961,282 | 1,972,674 | 2,662,353 |

III.—EXPORTS OF BRITISH PRODUCE AND MANUFACTURES FROM THE UNITED KINGDOM.

*An Account of the Exports of the Principal Articles of British and Irish Produce and Manufactures, in the twelve months ended 5th January, 1846, compared with the Exports in the two preceding years.*

| Articles. | Declared Value of the Exportations. 1844. | 1845. | 1846. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Coals and Culm,..... | £690,424 | £672,056 | £970,462 |
| Cotton Manufactures,..... | 16,254,000 | 18,816,764 | 19,172,564 |
| Cotton Yarn,..... | 7,193 971 | 6,988,584 | 6,962,626 |

| | 1844. | 1845. | 1846. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Earthenware, | £629,148 | £766,910 | £828,104 |
| Glass, | 339,918 | 389,321 | 356,372 |
| Hardwares and Cutlery, | 1,745,519 | 2,179,087 | 2,194,523 |
| Linen Manufactures, | 2,803,223 | 3,024,799 | 3,062,006 |
| Linen Yarn, | 898,829 | 1,050,676 | 1,051,303 |
| Metals, viz.—Iron and Steel, | 2,590,833 | 3,193,368 | 3,555,486 |
| Copper and Brass, | 1,644,248 | 1,736,545 | 1,702,345 |
| Lead, | 251,949 | 270,344 | 201,449 |
| Tin, in bars, &c., | 110,481 | 77,893 | 49,248 |
| Tin Plates, | 410,067 | 485,611 | 614,530 |
| Salt, | 213,746 | 224,656 | 218,941 |
| Silk Manufactures, | 667,952 | 736,455 | 764,424 |
| Sugar, refined, | 413,652 | 331,050 | 469,507 |
| Wool, Sheep or Lambs', | 420,940 | 535,134 | 555,432 |
| Woollen Yarn, | 742,888 | 958,217 | 1,067,056 |
| Woollen Manufactures, | 6,790,232 | 8,204,836 | 7,674,670 |
| Total, | £44,812,020 | £50,642,306 | £51,471,050 |

IV.—VESSELS EMPLOYED IN THE FOREIGN TRADE OF THE UNITED KINGDOM.

*An Account of the Number and Tonnage of Vessels which Entered Inwards and Cleared Outwards, in the twelve months ended 5th January, 1846, compared with the Entries and Clearances in the two preceding years; stated exclusively of Vessels in Ballast, and of those employed in the Coasting Trade between Great Britain and Ireland.*

ENTERED INWARDS.

| | 1844. | | 1845. | | 1846. | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Ships. | Tonnage. | Ships. | Tonnage. | Ships. | Tonnage. |
| United Kingdom and its dependencies, | 13,964 | 2,919,528 | 14,681 | 3,087,437 | 15,964 | 3,669,853 |
| Other countries, | 5,600 | 1,005,894 | 7,247 | 1,143,897 | 7,895 | 1,353,735 |
| Total, | 19,564 | 3,925,422 | 21,928 | 4,231,334 | 23,859 | 5,023,588 |

CLEARED OUTWARDS.

| | 1844. | | 1845. | | 1846. | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Ships. | Tonnage. | Ships. | Tonnage. | Ships. | Tonnage. |
| United Kingdom and its dependencies, | 15,206 | 2,727,306 | 13,842 | 2,604,243 | 14,515 | 2,947,257 |
| Other countries, | 6,774 | 1,026,063 | 7,200 | 1,075,823 | 9,256 | 1,361,940 |
| Total, | 21,980 | 3,753,369 | 21,042 | 3,680,066 | 23,771 | 4,309,197 |

## BRITISH EXPORTS OF WOOLLEN GOODS TO CHINA.

The following tabular statement of the exports of Woollen and Worsted manufactures to China and Hong Kong, is derived from a Parliamentary paper, recently made public. It embraces exports previously to the cessation of the East India Company's charter, and subsequently to the cessation of that charter, as will be seen below:—

EXPORTED PREVIOUSLY TO THE CESSATION OF THE EAST INDIA COMPANY'S CHARTER.

| Years. | Cloths of all sorts. | | Stuffs, woollen or worsted. | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Pieces. | £ | Pieces. | £ |
| 1824 | 19,860 | 258,180 | 128,489 | 274,041 |
| 1825 | 19,468 | 254,343 | 165,738 | 397,704 |
| 1826 | 28,346 | 328,840 | 191,455 | 520,141 |
| 1827 | 19,488 | 186,749 | 119,783 | 274,444 |
| 1828 | 17,852 | 211,930 | 178,426 | 405,674 |
| 1829 | 21,034 | 203,161 | 135,126 | 285,747 |
| 1830 | 19,435 | 163,270 | 169,470 | 311,223 |
| 1831 | 16,340 | 142,324 | 153,060 | 257,280 |
| 1832 | 21,857 | 206,910 | 162,126 | 259,027 |
| 1833 | 33,495 | 250,670 | 167,986 | 283,960 |

EXPORTED SUBSEQUENTLY TO THE CESSATION OF THE EAST INDIA COMPANY'S CHARTER.

| Years. | Cloths of all sorts. | | Stuffs, Woollen or worsted. | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Pieces. | £ | Pieces. | £ |
| 1834 | 69,765 | 415,121 | 69,560 | 167,050 |
| 1835 | 73,620 | 316,974 | 109,567 | 208,572 |
| 1836 | 90,917 | 405,413 | 121,379 | 251,920 |
| 1837 | 29,250 | 110,614 | 59,619 | 134,584 |
| 1838 | 55,716 | 223,543 | 127,436 | 184,025 |
| 1839 | 32,837 | 158,304 | 99,517 | 175,863 |
| 1840 | 9,520 | 58,841 | 64,248 | 103,825 |
| 1841 | 16,715 | 95,103 | 54,829 | 116,209 |
| 1842 | 8,098 | 35,116 | 62,491 | 107,318 |
| 1843 | 29,989 | 154,246 | 124,714 | 258,025 |
| 1844 | 39,803 | 213,117 | 170,034 | 345,103 |
| 1845 | 50,242 | 280,361 | 132,819 | 245,886 |

# MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

## A COMMERCIAL VIEW OF WAR.

ELIHU BURRITT, the Learned Blacksmith, furnishes some important statements in relation to the expenses of war, that, to say nothing of its morality or humanity, should be sufficient to deter governments and men of common sense from ever engaging in it.

In 1835, a year of great commercial prosperity, the value of all the British and Irish produce and manufactures exported from the United Kingdom was $208,237,980. The appropriations for the payment of the interest of the British war debt, and for the support of the Army, Ordnance, and Navy, during the current year, amount to $225,403,500!! Think of that! The war-expenses, in the time of peace, exceeding by nearly $20,000,000 per annum, all that the human and iron machinery of that great kingdom can produce beyond its home consumption!! And now there is to be a famine there, and the guilty policy that taxes the very air breathed by the poor, to pay these war expenses, has locked up British ports against the Egyptian granaries of the world, leaving those hungry millions to covet swine's food in the sight of interdicted abundance.

The mercantile shipping of the civilized world amounts to about 8,000,000 tons, which is worth, new and old, $30 per ton, and netts, clear of interest, insurance, etc., 10 per cent., or $24,000,000 per annum. *The appropriation to the British Navy for the current year is* $33,620,200!! Is not this a sober fact? that the annual expense of the nation's navy exceeds the nett profit of all the mercantile shipping owned by the civilized world?

The war-debts of the European nations amount to $10,000,000,000. It would require the labor of *four millions* of men, at $150 per annum for each man, to pay the *interest* of this sum at six per cent. To pay the principal, it would be necessary to levy a tax of at least TEN DOLLARS on every inhabitant of the globe! Another fact, rendering this more impressive, may be found in the "scrap of curious information," that no heathen nations are in arrears for the butcheries they have perpetrated on the human race. They pay cash down for all that is done for the devil under their hands. Christian nations alone "go on tick" for that kind of service.

From March 4th, 1789, to June 30th, 1814, our government expended on the War Department $663,438,851. The interest on this sum, at 6 per cent, would build Whitney's great railroad from the lakes to the Pacific, 2,500 miles in length, at $15,000 per mile; and thus erect a highway for the commerce and communion of the family of nations, which should be reckoned in all coming time one of the greatest enterprises that ever blessed the race.

## RESOURCES OF THOMASTON, MAINE.

ITS LIME AND LIMESTONE.

We have always heard a great deal about the quantities of lime manufactured at Thomaston, (Me.,) but had no definite knowledge of the actual extent to which this business is carried on in that quarter, until we met with the "Lime Rock Gazette."

Thomaston, in the county of Lincoln, state of Maine, is bounded east by Penobscot co., and west by St. George's river. It contains excellent limestone, from which, in 1840, about 350,000 casks were manufactured. It is estimated by Haskell, that there are $14,000,000 worth of limestone within twenty feet of the surface; and more than half a million of dollars are annually received from the sale of lime. The state prison is situated on the banks of the St. George river, and the convicts are employed chiefly in cutting and preparing for exportation a fine blue granite, found on the banks of the river. In 1840 the town contained 90 stores, 2 fulling mills, 3 grist mills, 1 saw mill, 1 pottery, 2 printing offices, 2 weekly newspapers, 1 college, 3 academies, 166 students; 27 schools, 2,423 students.

There are now in that town 132 lime-kilns, which, during the summer season, are in continual operation. Each kiln will yield, on an average, at every separate burning, 400 casks of lime, and is burned, during the season, 12 times—thus making the whole amount of lime manufactured at that place 600,000 barrels! About 27 cords of wood are consumed in burning a kiln, the price of which, during the past season, has been $3 per cord; and in the process of manufacturing the rock into merchantable lime, a large number of laborers are continually employed.

The following table will show the estimated expense of manufacturing the lime of the last season, (1845,) together with its average sale at the kilns, and expenses of exportation:

| | |
|---|---|
| 633,600 casks rock at kiln, at 16 cents, | $101,376 00 |
| 633,600 do. paid for burning, 8 do. | 50,688 00 |
| 633,600 lime casks, 16 cents, | 101,376 00 |
| 42,708 cords of wood, at $3 00 | 128,304 00 |
| | $381,744 00 |
| 633,600 sold at the kilns at 65 cents, | $411,845 00 |
| 633,600 freight for transportation, 20 cents, | 126,720 00 |
| Cost at market, | $538,560 00 |

This is a good mode of transmuting rock into silver and gold.

## AD VALOREM DUTIES ON WINES.

Several of the principal wine importers and merchants of New York, have addressed a memorial to Congress adverse to the substitution of ad valorem for specific duties on foreign wine. The memorial sets forth, "that an ad valorem duty upon wine, whether assessed upon the invoice value or upon the actual market price, presents great difficulties, and highly detrimental consequences to the fair dealer and to the revenue; as, if levied upon the cost of invoice, the dishonest merchant would undervalue the article without fear of detection, it being quite impossible to ascertain the price of such an article as wine, the value of which depends not only upon the often disputed taste or flavor, but frequently upon the reputation of particular brands, and when imported upon American account, is seldom or never purchased for cash, but obtained in barter for staves, flour, or other American produce; or is exported to this country for sale on account of the proprietors of the vineyards. That if the duty be assessed upon actual market price, the same difficulties present themselves to ascertain the value, which is constantly changing, of numberless qualities of any given denomination of wine; besides, the mode of levying the duty and its amount should of necessity be uniform in all the ports of entry in the Union, and this uniformity could not be obtained, if, as often happens, the value of wine were thirty per cent higher in New Orleans than in Boston."

# THE BOOK TRADE.

1.—*History of the Later Roman Commonwealth, from the end of the Second Punic War, to the death of Julius Cæsar, and the reign of Augustus; with the Life of Trajan.* By THOMAS ARNOLD, D.D., late Regius of Modern History, in the University of Oxford, and Head Master of Rugby School. Two volumes of the English Edition, complete in one. New York: D. Appleton & Co. Philadelphia: Geo. S. Appleton.

This volume, which embraces a republication of the portion of Roman History contributed by Dr. Arnold to the "Encyclopedia Metropolitana," between the years 1823 and 1827, forms a most valuable part of our historical literature, and is not unworthy of accompanying the two previous volumes—the fruit of the matured years of a mind deeply imbued with all the elements of progress. Dr. Arnold, in the present work, carries the reader through a long and important era, from the close of the Punic War, to the final establishment of the empire under Augustus, and at the same time furnishes him with a clear and consecutive narrative of the events of this period. As a continuation of the two former volumes of the early history, recently republished here by the same house, which carries it down to the period of Gibbon, it will be prized by every one who can appreciate the erudite, clear-minded and benevolent-hearted author. Dr. Arnold combined in an eminent degree, theological orthodoxy with the most enlarged catholic liberality—which placed him at an equal distance from a narrow bigotry on the one hand, and a cold and sneering infidelity on the other. The narrative is clear and distinct, and the philosophical deductions are generally natural and just. Every page bears the impress of the finished scholar, and the sound-headed, pure-minded man. Dr. Arnold's history of Rome is now generally admitted to excel all others.

2.—*The Oregon Territory: its History and Discovery; including an Account of the Convention of the Escurial; also, the Treaties and Negotiations between the United States and Great Britain, held at various times, for the Settlement of the Boundary Line, and an Examination of the whole Question in respect to Facts, and the Law of Nations.* By TRAVERS TWISS, D. C., F. R. S., Professor of Political Economy in the University of Oxford, etc. New York: D. Appleton & Co. Philadelphia: George S. Appleton.

The professed object of the author of this volume, in instituting the present inquiry into the historical facts and negotiations connected with the Oregon Territory, was to contribute to the peaceful solution of the question at issue between the United States of America and Great Britain. That it may have this effect, is the earnest desire of all intelligent, Christian men, whether living under the government of the "model republic," or that of the "limited, constitutional monarchy" of England. Mr. T. thinks, and not altogether without truth, that the case of the United States has been overstated by our writers and negotiators. The same, perhaps, may be said of the same class of men on the British side of the question. The searcher after truth and justice will read both, and weigh well the facts and the arguments of each, before deciding on the merits of the respective claims.

3.—*Twenty-Four Years in the Argentine Republic; embracing its Civil and Military History, and an Account of its Political Condition before and during the Administration of Governor Rosas; his Course of Policy; the Causes and Character of his Interference with the Government of Montevideo, and the Circumstances which led to the Interposition of England and France.* By Col. J. ANTHONY KING, an Officer in the Army of the Republic, and Twenty-Four Years a Resident of the Country. New York: D. Appleton & Co. Philadelphia: George S. Appleton.

Colonel King, whose narrative is recorded in the present volume, was associated with the leading men of the Argentine Republic, during its most troublous times; served for a long time in its army; travelled over almost every part of it, and was a resident in it for nearly a quarter of a century. These, and other circumstances, have enabled him to impart a more thorough information of the condition of the people, their politics, habits, customs, religion, &c., &c., than has ever, to our knowledge, before been given to the world. Aside from the valuable information the work contains, on subjects of use to the statesman, both in this country and Europe, the apparently faithful statement of occurrences which took place during Col. K.'s residence there, the incidents connected with his personal history and experience, possess an interest almost, if not quite as romantic, as a work of pure fiction.

4.—*The People.* By M. MICHELET, member of the Institute, author of "Priests, Women and Families," "History of France," &c. &c. Translated by G. H. SMITH, F. G. S. New York: D. Appleton & Co. Philadelphia: G. S. Appleton.

M. Michelet is well known to the French people as a voluminous and powerful writer, and this volume contains his own peculiar views of the state of society, especially relating to the condition of France. "I have made it," he says, "out of myself, out of my life, and out of my heart"—the true method of book-making. It is replete with profound thought, flowing from the observation and experience of the author, who deeply sympathizes with the people, because he knows their life, their labors, and their sufferings, by interrogating his own memory. The life of the people, their social condition, etc., are described in a masterly manner, and the brilliant clearness, and vivid freshness of his style, must fascinate every reader. It is one of the few books that should be read by all.

5.—*An Introduction to Entomology; or, Elements of the Natural History of Insects: comprising an Account of Noxious and Useful Insects, of their Metamorphoses, Food, Stratagems, Habitations, Societies, Motions, Noises, Hybernation, Instinct, etc., etc.* With Plates. By WILLIAM KIRBY, M. A., F. R. S., and L. S., Rector of Barham, and WILLIAM SPENCE, Esq., F. R. S. and L. S. Philadelphia: Lea & Blanchard.

The first American, from the sixth London edition, of this work, was corrected, and considerably enlarged, by the authors. We have been greatly interested in running over the pages of this treatise. There is scarcely, in the wide range of natural science, a more interesting or instructive study than that of insects, or one that is calculated to excite more curiosity or wonder. Entomologists calculate the number of the species of insects at four hundred thousand, or even more, perfectly distinct from each other; while, for all the other classes of animals together, thirty thousand species would be considered a high estimate. The minute and curious habits and peculiarities of the different species of insects brought to our view in this work, go to demonstrate that the works of the Creator are great, and worthy of our attention and investigation—the least in the scale, as well as the highest; the most minute and feeble, as well as those that exceed in magnitude and might. The popular form of letters is adopted by the authors, in imparting a knowledge of the subject, which renders the work peculiarly fitted for our district school libraries, which are open to all ages and classes.

6.—*The Modern British Essayists.* Vol. II.—Talfourd and Stephen. Philadelphia: Carey & Hart.

This volume embraces the contributions of two of the best British essayists of the present day. Of the critical and miscellaneous writings of Talfourd, this is the second American edition; with, however, several additional articles, never before published in this country, embracing his contributions to the New Monthly Magazine, London Magazine, Retrospective Review, Edinburgh Review, &c.; Speeches in Parliament on the copy-right question, and the eloquent and classic speech delivered in the Court of the Queen's Bench, in defence of Moxon, for the publication of Shelley's works. The critical and miscellaneous writings of James Stephen, consisting of eight papers contributed to the Edinburgh Review, are exceedingly able—models of their kind; and possess a standard value that entitles them to a prominent place among such a collection of British essays.

7.—*My Shooting-Box.* By FRANK FORESTER, (HENRY WILLIAM HERBERT, Esq.,) author of the "Warwick Woodlands," "Marmaduke Wyvil," "Cromwell," "The Brothers," etc., etc. Philadelphia: Carey & Hart.

This forms the third volume of "Carey & Hart's Library of Humorous American Works;" and it affords us pleasure to say that, thus far, we have wit and humor, without the indelicate innuendoes, and obscene jests, that too often creep into such works. Herbert maintains that field-sports are not only not incompatible with refined tastes, elegant habitudes, and gentle manners, but most congenial to them; and, at the same time, admirably calculated to produce good feelings between the gentry of the cities and the yeomanry of the country. The sketches are generally graphic and racy, and the wood-cut illustrations of Darley admirable.

8.—*Lives of Distinguished American Naval Officers.* By J. FENIMORE COOPER, author of "The Spy," "The Pilot," etc. Vol. II.

This, the second volume of a series of naval biographies, the first of which was noticed in a former number of this Magazine, embraces comprehensive memoirs of John Paul Jones, Melanchton Taylor Woolsey, Oliver Hazard Perry, and Richard Dale—men distinguished in the naval service of our country, who have accomplished their mission, and gone to their rest. The world, however, is beginning to tire of blood-stained glory; and the enthusiasm and heroism of great men will, in the future, find vent in promoting the moral and social progress of the race.

9.—*Memoirs of the Pretenders and their Adherents.* By JOHN HENEAGE JESSE, author of "Memoirs of the Court of England," "George Selwyn and his Contemporaries," etc. In two volumes. Philadelphia: J. W. Moore.

These two volumes form the first and second numbers of "Moore's Select Library," to be published monthly, and consist not only of the best English books and translations, but of original works of merit, by American authors. The design, as we infer from the editor's statement, and some twelve volumes which are announced as in press, will embrace a wider range of subjects. Besides, the works selected, thus far, are calculated to elevate the mind of the reader, while they afford instruction and amusement. The present volume possesses a good deal of historic interest, and is almost, if not quite, as replete with romantic incidents, as a work of pure fiction.

10.—*Scenes and Adventures in Spain, from 1835 to 1846.* By Poco MAS. Philadelphia: J. W. Moore's Select Library, No. 3.

This volume describes some of the more interesting scenes and incidents which came under the author's observation during a sojourn of five years in Spain; at a period, too, when that interesting but distracted country was passing through one of the many ordeals to which it has unhappily been subjected. The writer has confined himself, as far as possible, to the scenes and adventures which he witnessed, or was personally concerned in—there being afforded him an opportunity of tracing an outline of the habits, customs, and characteristics, as they were spread out before him in the different parts of the country which he visited. His descriptions are graphic, and his style agreeable; and, on the whole, we consider it an interesting, and at the same time instructive book.

11.—*The Life and Voyages of Americus Vespucius, with Illustrations concerning the Navigator, and the Discovery of the New World.* By C. EDWARDS LESTER, and ANDREW FOSTER. New York: Baker & Scribner.

The account of the life and voyages of the navigator from whom the American Continent has derived its name, will hardly fail to interest the student of history. In the present volume, the authors have exhibited in a satisfactory form, the circumstances which attended the career of this eminent explorer; and in the introductory remarks there is presented to us a condensed general view of the state of the commerce of the world previous to the discovery of America. The most authentic sources of historic evidence, throwing light upon the topic, appear to have been carefully consulted; and we have also a narrative of the travels of Marco Polo, as well as that of the fellow voyagers of Americus, besides documents illustrating the subject of the biography presented in the collection of Navarette. Whatever may be the opinion of the learned respecting the justice of the claim of Vespucius to give the name to this portion of the world, it must be admitted that the compilers have executed their work in a very appropriate manner; and have portrayed the character and services of the navigator in a seemingly accurate form. They acknowledge in their preface that they have consulted the volumes of Mr. Irving upon the "Life of Columbus," and "The Companions of Columbus," so that we may weigh the comparative merits of the two individuals in relation to our own continent.

12.—*Napoleon and his Marshals.* By J. T. HEADLEY. In 2 vols. New York: Baker & Scribner.

There are those who worship Napoleon for his amazing genius—his unparalleled power of embracing vast combinations—his tireless energy—his ceaseless activity—his ability to direct the movement of half a million of soldiers in different parts of the world, and at the same time reform the laws, restore the currency, and administer the government of his country. To this class, Mr. Headley belongs—and he accordingly appears as his apologist. Another class look with horror at the rivers of blood that flowed during his eventful career, and view him only as the selfish and ambitious despot. The truth, probably, is to be found between these two extremes; and the philanthropic mind is led to look upon him as an instrument in the hands of Providence, raised up for the accomplishment of wise designs—to fulfil a mysterious mission. Mr. Headley has availed himself of almost every source of information, and written in a vigorous style a book that will be read and admired by the democracy of numbers in what "Blackwood" sneeringly calls the "model" Republic.

13.—*Slavery Discussed, in Occasional Essays, from 1833 to 1846.* By LEONARD BACON, Pastor of the First Church in New Haven. New York: Baker & Scribner.

The author of this volume, who is a very able, and we doubt not conscientious writer, has presented his views with a characteristic boldness of style that distinguishes the most of his productions, discussing the question largely in a moral point of view, and portraying the many deplorable evils connected with the system; he points out what he conceives to be the duty of the people, and especially the church to which he belongs, upon this vexed question.

14.—*Collections of the American Statistical Association. Containing Statistics of Population in Massachusetts.* Prepared by JOSEPH B. FLINT. Vol I. Part II. Boston: Charles C. Little and James Brown.

The comparatively modern science of statistics is beginning to attract to itself a general interest: and some of the principal powers of Europe are adopting it as a favorite source of knowledge. Sweden early directed its attention to the subject, and there is now a statistical department, or bureau, connected with the governments of Prussia, Austria, Bavaria, Wurtemburg, Naples, and Sardinia. A statistical society is also established in Saxony; and France has organized a society of universal statistics, which is under the protection of the king. Great Britain has likewise published, under the auspices of the board of trade, annual volumes embracing most valuable information of this kind. The recent work of Mr. Macgregor, who is understood to be at the present time the secretary of that board, embodying the statistics of the United States, embraces a much greater variety of statistical matter connected with our own country than any other volume upon the same subject. The present work contains the second part of the first volume issued by the American Statistical Association, and it embraces statistical tables of the early population of Massachusetts, illustrated with appropriate historical information, gleaned from authoritative works. It can hardly be doubted that the enterprise of this society will be attended with beneficial results—for the most valuable species of knowledge is that of facts.

15.—*Treatise on the Physiological and Moral Management of Infancy.* By ANDREW COMBE, M. D., Fellow of the Royal College of Physicians of Edinburgh, etc. With Notes, and a Supplementary Chapter. By JOHN BELL, M. D., Fellow of the College of Physicians of Philadelphia, etc. Boston: Saxton & Kelt.

A new edition of a work that has passed through a great number in England, and the United States. It is addressed chiefly to parents, and to the younger and more inexperienced members of the medical profession; but it is not to them alone that the subject ought to have attractions. The study of infancy, it is well said by the author, considered even as an element in the history and philosophy of the race, is fertile in truths of the highest practical nature and importance.

16.—*Theological Essays. Reprinted from the Princeton Review.* New York and London: Wiley & Putnam.

This is an octavo volume of more than seven hundred pages, handsomely printed, and neatly bound in muslin. The topics here discussed, by some of the ablest pens in the Presbyterian denomination in the United States, are considered by a large class of divines of great importance in theology. They involve the questions agitated between what is technically termed the "Evangelical scheme," on one hand, and "Infidels, Papists, Socinians, Pelagians, Arminians, and Enthusiasts," on the other. "In reproducing, for the use of clergymen, theological students, and accomplished laymen, dissertations which have a polemical aspect, it is by no means intended to revive old controversies; yet it is the persuasion of those who make this publication, that the value of the truths contended for cannot well be overrated." "Transcendentalism," which seems to be diffusing some of its ideas, at least, among the most discordant systems, forms the subject of one of the twenty-three essays contained in the volume. It, on the whole, forms a very fair specimen of the religious literature at Princeton School, of the theologians and scholars.

17.—*Works of the English Puritan Divines. Vol. II.—Bunyan. The Greatness of the Soul, and the Unspeakableness of the Loss thereof; No Way to Heaven but by Jesus Christ: the Strait Gate.* By JOHN BUNYAN. To which is prefixed, an Introductory Essay on his Genius and Writings. By Rev. ROBERT PHILIP, author of "The Life and Times of Bunyan." New York: Wiley & Putnam.

Bunyan is undoubtedly one of the best specimens of the old Puritan divines, and the present volume is a fair specimen of his peculiar genius, and antique style. Mr. Philip, in his able and ingenious critique, which occupies about fifty pages of the volume, says there was more power about Bunyan's intellect, than his *spiritual* admirers generally suppose; for it commands or wins the admiration of men who have no spiritual discernment, and no taste for devotion. He "picked and packed words," as he calls his Saxonisms; but not for their beauty or point as compesition, nor as specimens of his own vein, but because they were wanted to arrest attention, and were likely to rivet instruction. It is well remarked, that both new and beautiful lights may be thrown around the old facts, by devotees. Dr. Cheever has attempted this in his lectures on the "Pilgrim's Progress," and Carlyle has done it for Oliver Cromwell.

18.—*Monograph of the Dollar; Good and Bad.* By J. L. RIDDELL, M. D., Melter and Refiner, in the United States Branch Mint at New Orleans, and Professor of Chemistry in the Medical College, Louisana. New Orleans: B. H. Norman. New York: Wiley & Putnam.

This is a large octavo volume, illustrated with fac-simile figures of four hundred and twenty-five varieties of the dollar, and eighty seven varieties of half-dollars, including the genuine, the law-standard, and the counterfeit; giving their weight, quality and exact value—which will enable the inexperienced to detect those which are spurious. The "impressions" of the coin are illustrated with notes and remarks on the description, weight, value and impression of coins, and counterfeits. To the banker and broker we should consider the work indispensable, while to the curious collector of coins it will prove useful and interesting. By a note appended to the present volume, we notice that the author is engaged in the preparation of a "General Atlas of Modern Coins," upon the plan of the present. Such a work, illustrated with fac-simile figures, will be found useful, not only in giving the authentic and exact quality, and value of the multiform varieties of hard money, but also in affording valuable and ready means in distinguishing the genuine from the spurious.

19.—*Recollections of Mexico.* By WADDY THOMPSON, Esq., late Envoy Extraordinary, and Minister Plenipotentiary of the United States at Mexico. New York and London: Wiley & Putnam.

The peculiarly belligerent position of our own government toward that of Mexico renders this work of especial interest at the present time. The official residence of Mr. Thompson, as minister in the country which seems destined to continual revolution, afforded him ample opportunity to acquire a correct knowledge of the character of the people, and the prominent local circumstances of the Mexican nation. The author advances no claim to minute exactitude of detail, and assumes for them the credit only of "Recollections and Desultory Dissertations," remarking in his preface that he can say, in the words of an affidavit to an answer in chancery, "that the facts stated as my own knowledge are true, and those stated on the information of others, I believe to be true." He has, however, performed more than he has promised, and has exhibited a view of the geography, population, products, and political relations of that nation, which is peculiarly required during the present juncture of affairs, springing from our existing entanglement with that unhappy priest and chieftain-ridden country.

20.—*Poems.* By THOMAS HOOD. New York: Wiley & Putnam's Library of Choice Reading.

Hood, by his humor and his humanity, has endeared himself to the lovers of the former, and the friends of the latter. His kindly soul has left its earthy tenement, but his genial spirit remains, to awaken the misanthropic, and gladden all beneficent and kindred hearts. This collection of his serious poems was made in fulfilment of his desire—among, we are informed, his last instructions to those who were dearest to him. His words and works are worth treasuring; and we earnestly commend this beautiful collection to all who can appreciate the good and true in literature and humanity.

21.—*Martyria; A Legend, wherein are contained Homilies, Conversations, and Incidents of the Reign of Edward VI.* Written by WILLIAM MOUNTFORD, Clerk. Boston: Crosby & Nichols.

This is the first American edition of a very clever English book, to which the Rev. F. D. Huntington has added a somewhat extended introductory essay, in which he takes occasion to commend its high conceptions of duty, its beautiful lessons of morality, faith, forgiveness, prayer, self-denial, and the depth of spiritual meaning, the intellectual insight, the classic gracefulness of the execution, as well as the pure elegance, and often condensed energy of its style, which must claim the admiration of every scholar, and in the highest degree, the studious attention of all who aim to growth in the Christian life. It will, we cannot doubt, be a most acceptable addition to the library of the Unitarian Christian, and may be read with advantage by those who regard sectarianism, in all its forms, as anything but favorable to the progress of practical, living Christianity.

22.—*The Shipmaster's Assistant, and Commercial Digest: Containing Information necessary for Merchants, Owners, and Masters of Ships.* By JOSEPH BLUNT, Counsellor at Law. New York: Published by the Author.

A most valuable compilation, and indispensable to men engaged in commercial pursuits. Mr. Blunt has contrived to collect and present in a condensed form, the multitude of laws and regulations of commerce and navigation, and reduce them to system, in an octavo volume of about five hundred pages. It embraces the requisite information on the following subjects, viz:—Masters, Mates, Seamen, Owners, Ships, Navigation Laws, Fisheries, Revenue-cutters, Custom-house Laws, Importations, Clearing and Entering Vessels, Drawbacks, Freight, Insurance, Average, Salvage, Bottomry and Respondentia, Factors, Bills of Exchange, Renewals, Weights, Measures, Wreck Fees, Quarantine Fees, Passenger Laws, Pilot Laws, Harbor Regulations, Marine Offences, Slave Trade, Navy, Pensions, Consuls, Tariff of the United States, and Commercial Regulations of foreign nations. This work, although preceded by two editions of a similar character, is in reality almost altogether new. We hope, in a future number, to give this valuable work a more extended notice.

23.—*The Discourses and Essays of the Rev. J. H. Merle D'Aubigne, author of the "History of the Great Reformation," etc. With an Introduction.* By ROBERT BAIRD, D. D. Translated from the French. By CHARLES W. BAIRD. New York: Harper & Brothers.

This volume contains a collection of discourses and essays, seventeen in all, a few of which have, at one time or another, been translated into English, and published separately, in England or this country, and some in both, either in small volumes or pamphlets; but the majority, we infer, are now for the first time offered to the English reader. They bear, says Dr. Baird, the impress of the same masterly mind which beams forth on every page of the author's inimitable History of the Great Reformation of the Sixteenth Century, and possess one grand characteristic—that of "a glorious baptism into the spirit of that Reformation."

24.—*A Year with the Franklins; or, To Suffer and be Strong.* By E. JANE COLE. New York: Harper & Brothers.

We are not quite certain that fiction is the most effectual method of imparting the lessons of wisdom and virtue. Perhaps much, however, may be done in this way, by weaving into a "well-told tale" the verities that are daily presenting themselves to the acute observer of human life and character. This little volume, which forms one of a series of very good books of this class, will find many readers among all ages; and will, we can scarcely doubt, afford a degree of innocent amusement, as well as instruction.

25.—*Uncle John; or, "It is Too Much Trouble."* By MARY ORNE. New York: Harper & Brothers.

The writer of this has a pleasant way of telling a story, so as to interest "little folks," and indeed all who retain any portion of the freshness of "early days." The moral may be inferred from the quoted maxim in the title of the story. It is a good one—and the illustrations are well done.

26.—*The Life of General Winfield Scott.* By E. D. MANSFIELD, Esq. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co.

The life of this brave and patriotic officer is identified with a considerable portion of the recent military history of the country. Although his services have not been performed on that large scale which has distinguished many of the bloody and disastrous battle-fields of Europe, and which are opposed to the spirit of the times, they have, notwithstanding, been marked by those features which establish his character as a military commander of sound judgment, promptitude and courage. They extend through the period from the adoption of the American Constitution to the present time. The volume exhibits all the prominent circumstances of his life, from his early youth to his succeeding campaigns upon the frontier—in which he won distinguished honor—together with his more recent labors touching the late border difficulties upon the Canada line, and those growing out of the Maine Boundary Question. As a biographical sketch of the commander-in-chief of the army under the national government, it is a valuable record.

27.—*The Little Robbers, and Other Tales: Translated from the French of Madame Guizot.* Boston: Waite, Pierce & Co.

These little tales are from the pen of Madame Guizot, who has been peculiarly happy in illustrating moral duty by other volumes of the same kind. The work is very neatly printed, and will repay a perusal.

28.—*Mitchell's Ancient Geography.* Philadelphia: Thomas, Cowperthwait & Co.

Few names are more extensively known in our country than that of Mitchell. His Primary Geography and School Geography are familiar to most pupils, in every state of the Union. We are glad to see that he has prepared a work on Ancient Geography, a department in which there has hitherto been a lamentable deficiency in our schools, more especially since we find that he has most admirably performed the task which he undertook. The treatise is clear and full, and illustrated with many very handsome cuts, and the maps are in the very best style. A part of the work is devoted to Sacred Geography. This will make it valuable to the teachers, as well as pupils of Sunday-schools, and to all who study sacred history, and other subjects connected with the Bible. The atlas contains an extensive index, in which the comparison of ancient and modern names is an important feature.

29.—*Essays, in a Series of Letters.* By JOHN FOSTER, Author of "An Essay on Popular Ignorance." First American, from the eighteenth London Edition. New York: Robert Carter.

This volume from the pen of a sterling writer, contains several essays; one upon the subject of "A Man's writing Memoirs of Himself," and another, which has been long known to the most discriminating portion of the reading community, upon "Decision of Character." This last essay is eminently analytical and profound. He discusses the subject with a seeming comprehension of all its parts, and traces those causes which bear upon the human character with the hand of a master. It will well repay a careful study.

30.—*The Genuineness, Authenticity and Inspiration of the Word of God.* By the Editor of "Bagster's Comprehensive Bible." New York: Robert Carter.

This work is an able exposition of the ground upon which Christianity rests, a system which is not only a source of human hope in respect to the future, but the adamantine foundation of the general policy of the most civilized nations of modern times. It embraces in separate parts the evidences of the divine origin of the Bible, drawn from various sources—referring as well to their prescriptive sanctity as to their entire scope and spirit, exhibiting a great mass of historic proof upon the subject.

31.—*The Old White Meeting-House; or, Reminiscences of a Country Congregation.* New York: Robert Carter's Cabinet Library.

32.—*A Brief Sketch of the Life of the late Miss Sarah Martin, of Great Yarmouth; with Extracts from Parliamentary Reports on Prisons, or her own Prison Journals, &c.* New York: Robert Carter.

33.—*The Mount of Olives, and other Lectures on Prayer.* By the Rev. JAMES HAMILTON. New York: Robert Carter.

The volumes embraced in "Carter's Cabinet Library," of which the three volumes named above form a part, are deeply imbued with the religious sentiment, and are generally popular with that large class of professed Christians denominated "orthodox" or "evangelical." The series is selected from the most approved theological writers, and the volumes are handsomely printed, and afforded at very moderate prices.

34.—*The Autobiography of Edward Gibbon, Esq., illustrated from his Letters, with Occasional Notes and Narratives.* By JOHN, LORD SHEFFIELD. Complete in 1 vol. New York: Turner & Hayden.

The autobiography of an impartial and truthful man, who has distinguished himself in the world, will ever be read with interest. The historian descends from his stilts, and leaves behind a few simple and apparently faithful annals of his life and times; and a friend (Lord Sheffield) supplies the last twenty years of his life, with his correspondence during that period, which, in a good measure, supplies the deficiency. The curiosity so universally experienced by readers, to know something of their favorite authors, in every department of literature, is thus gratified.

35.—*Friendless.* By a Friend of Youth. New York: C. L. Stickney.

"God helps those who help themselves," the homely aphorism adopted by the author as the motto of the volume, is happily illustrated in the agreeable narrative which follows. The design of our countryman is to enforce upon the young the importance of depending upon their own resources, teaching them to appreciate the faculties with which nature has gifted them for their benefit and use. It is a good book—one which we can cordially recommend to the "people and their children."

36.—*The Missionary Enterprise: a Collection of Discourses on Christian Missions, by American Authors.* Edited by BARON STOW, Pastor of Baldwin Place Church, Boston. Boston: Gould, Kendall & Lincoln.

This volume embraces a collection of fifteen discourses, by some of the most eminent American divines of the various denominations of Christians, which were scattered in ephemeral forms, but are now gathered up, and added to the increasing stock of missionary literature. The missionary movement is discussed by the different authors in all its bearings. Dr. Wayland, of Brown University, for instance, discourses of "The Moral Dignity of the Missionary Enterprise." Dr. Anderson, of the "Theory of Missions to the Heathen." Dr. Griffin presents the "Arguments for Missions," and Dr. Stone describes the "Bearings of Modern Commerce on the progress of Modern Missions."

*Simmonds' Colonial Magazine and Foreign Miscellany*, for May, was duly received by the Brittania. It contains, as usual, a mass of information in relation to the colonies, alike important to the merchant and the general reader. It is conducted by P. L. Simmonds, Esq., with singular ability, and is the most intrinsically valuable publication that comes to us across the Atlantic.

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